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HISTORY OF OUR COUNTRY

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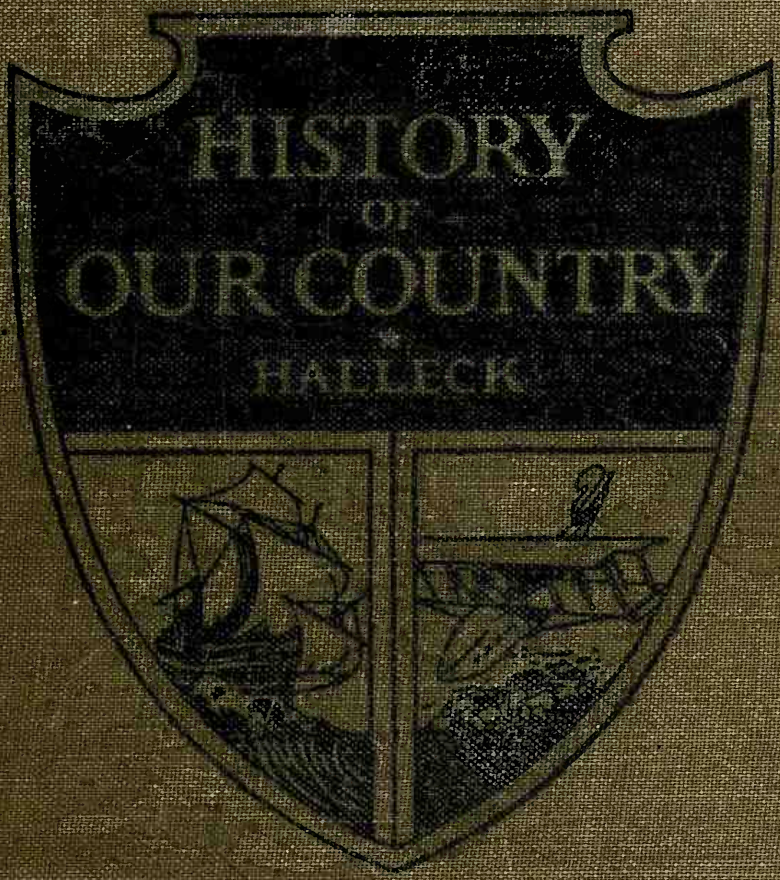

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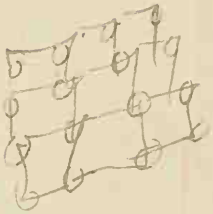

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Grade 1933.

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JOHN WARNKE

AGE 13

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Ruth Marie Warnke.
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Ruth Warnke
Sumner Iowa
R#4, Box 52
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John Warnke

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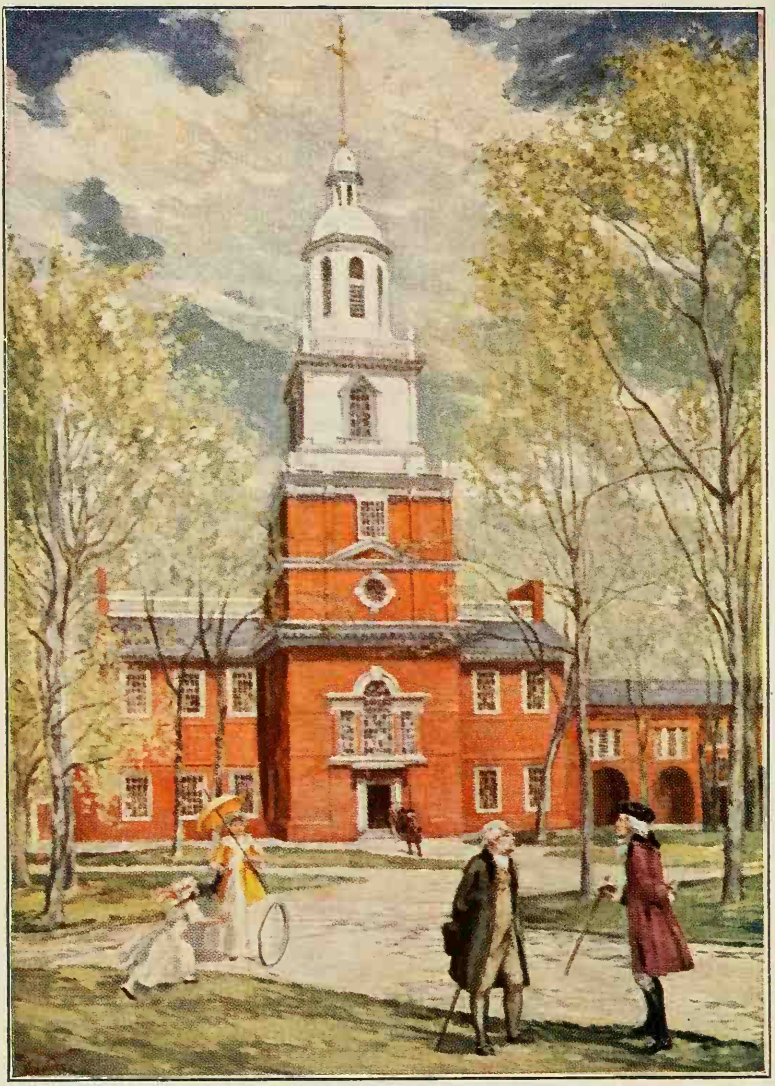

INDEPENDENCE HALL

One of the most interesting buildings in the United States. The Continental Congress met in it from 1775 to 1781. The Declaration of Independence was adopted in it, July 4, 1776. The Liberty Bell, the first bell rung to celebrate the adoption of the Declaration of Independence, is kept in this building. The Convention which framed the Constitution of the United States met here (1787). Washington and Franklin are pictured in the foreground.

HALLECK'S AMERICAN HISTORY SERIES

HISTORY OF OUR COUNTRY

FOR HIGHER GRADES

BY

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CO-AUTHOR OF "OUR NATION'S HERITAGE"

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Halleck's History of Our Country

W.P. 28

Made in U. S. A.

PREFACE

THIS book aims to present from a modern point of view the main facts in American History in a simple, direct, and living way, just as if they had happened this morning. The life, progress, and industries of the people are specially emphasized.

The twentieth century is more interested than the preceding one in such questions as: How did our forefathers help set the standard for Americanism? What ideals have they given to mankind? How have the industries and inventions of the American people served their own country and the world? Without a knowledge of our ideals and achievements, even those who are Americans by birth cannot be Americanized. The following pages aim to present facts which are necessary for all our youth to know in order to become Americans. For instance, the pupil is told how the work of such Virginians as Washington, Jefferson, and Marshall helped make our country what it is. The Pilgrim ideals, which every student of Americanism needs to know, are thrown clearly on the screen. The new social aims and patriotic duties of the twentieth century are equally emphasized.

During a number of years the author kept an inventory of the facts which (1) did and (2) did not germinate in the minds of the pupils in his history classes. The facts which sprouted were always either concretely stated by the textbook or given concrete application by the teacher. Among such facts those which led to some activity on the part of the pupil were the most certain to become part of his permanent mental assets. The author has tried to profit by his experience and to be as concrete as space would permit. For example, after mentioning colonial household industries, a phrase which means nothing to the boys and little to the girls of to-day, he tells what Nancy Peabody actually did and quotes from a diary in which a colonial girl specified her varied work (pp. 146, 147).

A section headed "Activities" follows each chapter because pupils tend to become interested in anything which can hold their attention long enough for some kind of mental action to result. The Activities on colonial life, for instance (pp. 159, 160), ask the pupils to tell how they would have made any one of the following: collar or trace for a horse, handkerchief, broom, blanket, twine, or dye; to draw the plan

and specify the materials for building a colonial house; to write one hundred words on occupations by which they might have earned their living; to talk for two minutes on "Twenty-four Hours in a Colonial Log House in January"; to make a list of the present educational advantages which Washington and Franklin did not enjoy.

We do something more than teach history whenever we give Activities (sometimes called by the more formidable name of "problems" or "projects") that develop imagination, sympathetic understanding, and appreciation, such, for instance, as: "Imagine yourself a Quaker in early Massachusetts and write fifty words to describe the Puritans; then imagine yourself a Puritan and write fifty words to describe the Quakers" (p. 95). "If a Rip Van Winkle accustomed to blowing out the lamp had gone to sleep in 1865 and awakened in 1900, explain some things that you would need to teach him about the conveniences of a modern home" (p. 473).

Imagination will enable the teacher to call for other Activities along the line of those suggested.

History is perhaps the most difficult of all grade subjects, and the teacher has the right to expect all the assistance possible from the text. In order to make the subject more vivid, the author has not spared time in searching for the most varied illustrations. Facsimiles from the early newspapers, contemporary pictures, and the work of modern artists have been lavishly used to interpret the historical narrative and add to its interest. The "References for Teachers" at the ends of the chapters are specially planned to enable the teacher to stimulate the interest of the class by a fuller and more varied presentation of the subject matter.

The time has come for our youth to be taught the importance of woman's work in founding this great commonwealth. The single greatest fact in American history is the influence of the home, in the making of which the mother has played as great a part as the father.

The author is indebted to his wife, to Miss Harriet E. Anderson, and to other welfare workers with whom he has been associated, for their constant emphasis on the new ideals in government and service. Without their suggestions the book would have been less modern. In the sections dealing with the West in the Revolution, the author received valuable assistance from Mr. Temple Bodley, an authority on this period. Miss Juliette Frantz prepared most of the References for Teachers and Pupils, helped plan the Activities, aided in selecting the illustrations, gave valuable critical advice about the text, and read the proof.

CONTENTS

CHAPTER		PAGE
I.	Before Columbus	1
II.	Discovery, Exploration, and Early Colonization	15
III.	Natural Features and Natives	36
IV.	The First Permanent English Colony	49
V.	The Coming of the Pilgrims	64
VI.	Puritan Colonies in New England	78
VII.	Maryland, the Carolinas, and Georgia	96
VIII.	The Middle Colonies	108
IX.	The Struggle of England and France for North America	123
X.	Life in the Colonies	141
XI.	Causes of Separation from Great Britain	161
XII.	Beginning of the Revolutionary War	179
XIII.	Progress of the Revolution	190
XIV.	The People, the Confederation, and the New Union	213
XV.	Beginning of Government Under the Constitution	228
XVI.	Expansion and Foreign Trouble	244
XVII.	Second War with Great Britain	259
XVIII.	American Problems, 1815 to 1829	271
XIX.	Life and Progress, 1789 to 1829	282
XX.	The Industrial Revolution	301
XXI.	Jacksonian Democracy (1829–1841)	311
XXII.	Expansion to the Pacific	323
XXIII.	Slavery Trouble (1849–1861)	335
XXIV.	Progress, 1830 to 1860	348
XXV.	Secession and Civil War	370
XXVI.	Progress of the Civil War	391
XXVII.	Reconstruction, 1865 to 1877	409
XXVIII.	A New Period, 1877 to 1897	423
XXIX.	The United States Becomes a World Power	434
XXX.	Growth of the West	445
XXXI.	A New Industrial Revolution (1865–1900)	459
XXXII.	New Aims (1901–1909)	474
XXXIII.	Interests in Latin America	483
XXXIV.	Problems, Old and New (1909–1917)	493
XXXV.	The World War	500
XXXVI.	Twentieth-Century Progress and Problems	521

APPENDIX

PAGE
Declaration of Independence vii
Constitution of the United States xi
The Twenty Most Important Dates in American History xxiv
The Forty-Eight States xxv
Presidents of the United States xxvi
Index xxvii

COLORED PICTURES

Independence Hall . . . . . Frontispiece
The Mayflower . . . . . Facing page 68
Expedition of George Rogers Clark, the Hero of the Northwest . . . . . Facing page 204
Sakakawea, the Bird Woman . . . . . Facing page 252
Evolution of the Flag . . . . . Facing page 279
Orchard on Irrigated Land in the West . . . . . Facing page 475
A Lock on the Panama Canal . . . . . Facing page 490
Immigrants Entering New York Bay . . . . . Facing page 529

COLORED MAPS

Homes of Races that Influenced Western Civilization . Facing page 3
Early Voyages to America . . . . . Facing page 19
Physical Map of the United States . . . . . Facing page 37
French Claims in North America After La Salle's Explorations, 1682 . . . . . Facing page 131
The Thirteen American Colonies and Interior Indian Country . . . . . Facing page 161
North America After the Revolution . . . . . Facing page 210
The United States, 1803 . . . . . Facing page 249
Territorial Development of the United States . . Following page 258
The United States, 1830 . . . . . Facing page 275
Transportation in the United States, 1850 . . . . . Facing page 349
The United States, 1861 . . . . . Facing page 371
The United States and Its Outlying Possessions . . Following page 440
Industrial Map of the United States . . . . . Following page 468

History of Our Country

CHAPTER I

BEFORE COLUMBUS

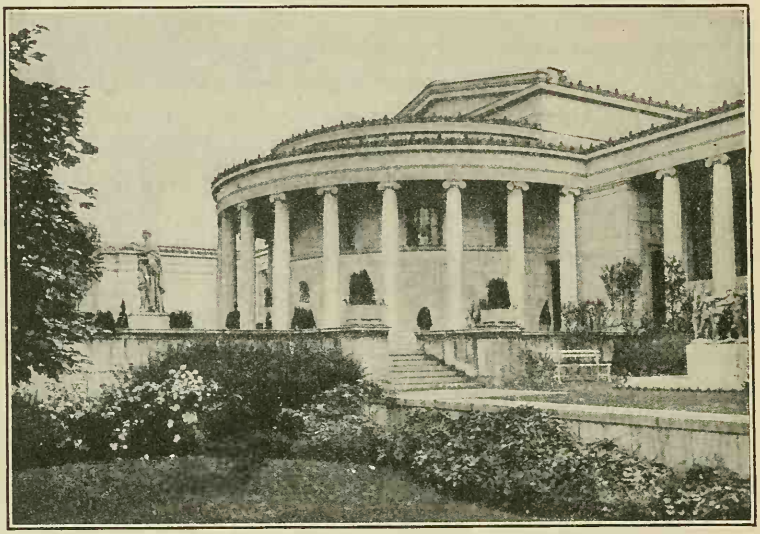
America owes a debt to the past.—In the last century, America was often called a "self-made" nation. The modern study of history shows that America owes a large debt to older countries. She inherited from the Old World the results of thousands of years of experience and study. The first white settlers in America crossed the Atlantic from Europe in ships that required much experience to build and navigate. These settlers brought over books and printing presses, which the Old World had taught them how to use. It took the world a long time to learn the wonderful arts of reading, writing, and ciphering, which the European settlers brought to America. Let us glance at some of the nations and races to which America is especially in debt.

What some of the older nations gave.—America received the Old Testament (by way of Europe) from the Hebrews, who lived in Palestine, near the eastern shore of the Mediterranean Sea. Our government rests largely on the ideas of right and wrong laid down in the Ten Commandments. The first white settlers in the United States were Christians. The Author of the Christian religion came from the Hebrew race. His birthday, Christmas, is the greatest of all our holidays.

The Phœnicians (fe-nĭsh′anz), who lived north of Palestine, were great sailors and traders. During their trading voyages they taught Europeans the use of the alphabet. The Egyptians, who dwelt in the valley of the river Nile, in the northeastern part of Africa, showed the traders who visited them how paper

could be prepared from the papyrus (pă-pī′rus) plant and used for writing.

Influence of the Greeks.—The Greeks, whose home was in a little European peninsula southeast of Italy, showed the world what a democracy, or government by the people, is. Their greatest city, Athens, was governed by an assembly of its free citizens. We should know that there were experiments in democratic government before the existence of the United States.



GREEK ARCHITECTURE IN AN AMERICAN BUILDING

The Albright Art Gallery in Buffalo, New York. The pillars are of the Greek style called Ionic, another Greek style, the Doric (p. 407), is simpler than this, and still another is more elaborate.

The Greeks will always be famous for teaching other nations to love beautiful things. The English poet, John Keats, in his *Ode on a Grecian Urn*, shows how Grecian work impressed him. His poetic version of the Greek story of Endym′ion begins with this line, which is often quoted:

"A thing of beauty is a joy forever."

Many of the most beautiful public buildings in America are in part copied from the work of the Greeks. No other race has

HOMES OF RACES
that influenced
Western Civilization
SCALE OF MILES
0 200 400 600
The area in red and darker colors shows the greatest extent of the Roman Empire
Longitude West 0 Longitude 10 East from 20 Greenwich 30 40
ATLANTIC OCEAN
NORTH SEA
Baltic Sea
CALEDONIA (SCOTLAND)
WALL OF ANTONINUS OR SEVERUS
HADRIANS WALL
HIBERNIA (IRELAND)
BRITAIN
Lincoln
London
Canterbury
GERMANY
Saxons
Elbe
Rhine
BELGICA
Normans
Paris
Tours
GAUL
Lyons
Nimes
Rhone
Marseilles
Pyrenees
SPAIN
Ebro R.
Gades
Str. of Gibraltar
BALEARIC IS.
CORSICA
SARDINIA
SICILY
Syracuse
Milan
Venice
Genoa
Rome
Pompeii
ITALY
Apennines
Adriatic Sea
RAETIA
NORICUM
Danube
Vienna
PANNONIA
ILLYRICUM
DACIA
MŒSIA
THRACE
Constantinople
Bosporus
MACEDONIA
EPIRUS
GREECE
Athens
CRETE
SARMATIA
Volga R.
Ural R.
CASPIAN SEA
CRIMEA
BLACK SEA
Caucasus Mts.
ARMENIA
BITHYNIA AND PONTUS
GALATIA
CAPPADOCIA
ASIA
ASIA MINOR
LYCIA AND PAMPHYLIA
CILICIA
CYPRUS
Antioch
SYRIA
PHŒNICIA
PALESTINE
Jerusalem
ASSYRIA
MESOPOTAMIA
Tigris
Euphrates R.
PARTHIA
Persian Gulf
ARABIA
Red Sea
EGYPT
Nile R.
Alexandria
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
CYRENAICA
Carthage
AFRICA
NUMIDIA
MAURETANIA
Atlas Mts.
SAHARA

designed such graceful pillars for buildings. No one can be a good architect unless he studies the architecture of the Greeks. Grecian sculpture remains a model for the world. American students may be seen in the great museums, studying the statues of Grecian gods, goddesses, and heroes. The Greeks gave the world the theater and plays which were not equaled until the time of William Shakespeare, nearly two thousand years later.

The poetry and stories of the Greeks still rank among the best. In Homer's *Odyssey* (ŏd'ĭ-sĭ) we may read about the adventures of the hero Ulysses (Odys'seus in Greek); how, for instance, he outwitted the one-eyed giant Polyphemus (pŏl-ĭ-fē'mus) and the goddess Circe (sûr'sē). We admire Jason, whose brave deeds won the Golden Fleece, and we naturally ask ourselves what is to be the Golden Fleece that we shall win. With breathless interest we follow the journey of Hercules (hûr'kŭlēz), who fearlessly pursued Death beyond the grave and forced him to restore to life the heroine Alces'tis, who had died to save her husband. We may find some of these stories in Hawthorne's *Wonder Book* and *Tanglewood Tales*, Kingsley's *Greek Heroes*, and Church's *Stories from Homer*.

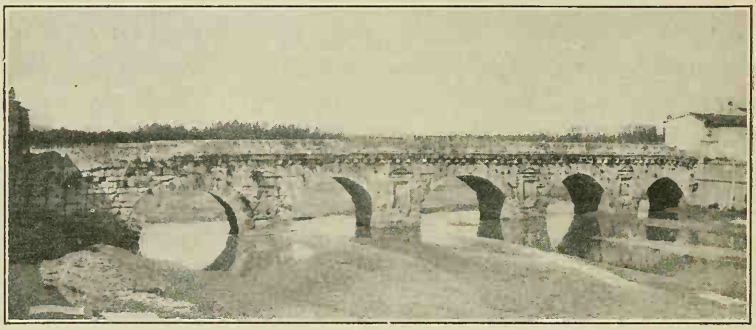
In many of our homes and schools, as well as in our art galleries and public buildings, we may see traces of the beauty which we owe to Greece.

What the Romans gave.—The Romans conquered a large part of the known world and helped to civilize it. Rome, still an important city of modern Italy, was the capital of the great Roman Empire. America inherited the greatest things which the Romans gave to the world.

No other people had equaled the Romans in building bridges, roads, aqueducts, arches, baths, and great structures for entertainment, like the Colosse'um. This vast building could seat 50,000, or nearly as many as lived in both New York and Boston when Washington was President, and nearly twice as many as Chicago (shĭ-kô'gō) had in 1850. We may still travel over some of the roads which the Romans built, and gaze at parts of their

aqueducts. Later Europe learned much from the Romans about the art of building. American engineers continue to study their bridges, roads, and arches.

The Romans conquered Greece, but civilization owes them a debt for preserving Greek art and literature and for allowing the Greeks to teach them. The Romans could not equal the Greeks in making beautiful things. The Roman work was strong, massive, and enduring, rather than graceful.



ROMAN BRIDGE IN ITALY, BUILT OVER 1900 YEARS AGO, AND STILL IN USE

The Romans were great lawmakers as well as builders. They gave their conquered provinces better laws than they had before. Roman influence may be traced in the present laws of France, Holland, Italy, Spain, Germany, South America, and our own state of Louisiana, which framed its first laws while it was a French colony. We now usually follow the Roman custom of allowing our cities to govern themselves.

The Roman government finally accepted Christianity (313 A.D.), and Rome became the headquarters from which missionaries went to teach Christianity to the peoples of western Europe. Christianity had come to the English and other Europeans long before they settled in America.

The Romans gave a large part of Europe a nearly uniform language—the Latin. The Italian, French, Spanish, Portuguese, and Roumanian are modern languages much like the Latin.

How Rome held back the barbarians and saved civilization.—Enemies always threatened the borders of the vast Roman Empire. The Romans had a standing army along the Rhine and Danube, which was able to keep out the half-civilized northern races until the empire became sufficiently civilized and Christianized to teach the world. When the conquerors finally came, the Christian religion had become strong enough to help civilize them, or the world would again have been plunged into darkness. If the line of soldiers on the borders of the Roman Empire had not held while the Romans were doing such great things for the world, the development of Spain and England and other European nations would have been very different, and even America might be heathen to-day.

The northern races conquer Rome.—The Romans by their conquests had secured wealth without earning it, and slaves to work for them. Victorious generals brought to Italy throngs of white captives whom they sold as slaves, sometimes at prices equivalent to only ten dollars each. Dependence on slaves, and on wealth taken from conquered people, helped destroy the former self-reliance of the Romans. They finally became too weak to hold their line against the northern races.

The Romans called all the northern people "Germans." The "German," or Teutonic, tribes were related, but they differed as much from one another as children of the same grandparents. Among these tribes were ancestors of the modern English, Dutch, Germans, Scandinavians, and part of the French and Italians. Many of the northern people broke through the Roman line, overran Italy and other Roman lands, and caused the downfall of the Western Roman Empire (476 A.D.).

The victors destroyed much and made the civilized world almost despair for a long period, but they did not uproot Roman civilization. Their coming was really necessary to save it. The same result followed that often happens when tired players on a football team are replaced by stronger men. The northern people learned that the Roman roads, houses, education, and

religion were better than their own. They intermarried with the Romans, accepted Christianity, and later helped civilization to make the greatest gains in history.

Our debt to the northern races.—The northern races brought new qualities to the struggle for the remaking of Europe. Love of war was a part of the early religion of these races. Thor, heard in the thunder and seen in the thunderbolt, which was called his "hammer," was their god of strength, and helper in war. One day in every week was called Thor's day (Thursday) in his honor. Valhalla, their heaven, could be won only by fighting. No coward ever entered it.

THOR, AS IMAGINED BY THE NORTHMEN

Thunder, they believed, was the rumbling of his chariot wheels; a stroke of lightning was a blow of his magic hammer.

Three qualities of these people influenced the colonization and development of America. These qualities were (1) unconquerable energy and determination, (2) the desire for free assemblies of the people to decide many questions that other races left to their king, and (3) a new idea of the personal independence and importance of each individual.

These characteristics were not then common to any other people. When a person of an Eastern race was told that some of the Americans playing a hard athletic game were wealthy, he asked why they did not hire some one to play for them. Such a question would never occur to a red-blooded descendant of these northern races. In one of these tribes the man who called another "lazy" had to apologize or fight.

Should Europe be Mohammedan or Christian?—An Arab (ăr′ab) by the name of Moham′med, born about a century after Rome fell, taught a religion which is called Mohammedanism. Its central creed is: "There is no God but Allah, and Mohammed is his prophet." Mohammed said that he was God's latest and greatest prophet, and superior to Christ. Mohammedanism marked a step in advance for the idolatrous tribes of western Asia; under it the Arabs made much progress.

Mohammed's followers used the sword to make converts to their faith. In eighty years they conquered more territory than Rome subdued in four centuries. To-day nearly one seventh of the world's population is Mohammedan. The Mohammedans conquered Spain and marched into France. A northern tribe, known as the Franks, had taken possession of the Roman province of Gaul (modern France). Under their leader Charles Martel′ (meaning Charles the Hammer), they met the Mohammedans near Tours (to͝or) in central France and defeated them in one of the decisive battles of the world (732 A.D.).

This battle helped to decide whether the religion of western Europe and of the future colonists of America was to be Christian or Mohammedan. If Mohammedanism had won, America could not have developed in her present way, because the homes on which American greatness depends could not have been founded under a religion which considers women far inferior to men. At the present time Mohammedans do not agree in regard to whether women have souls. An American traveler says: "The little girls in Syria do not receive very much consideration and love from their Mohammedan parents as a rule. There is a proverb among these people that 'When a girl is born, the stone of the threshold of the house weeps forty days.' If a Mohammedan is away from home, he will never think of writing to his wife or daughter, but always addresses his letters to his son."

Under the old Mohammedan law the one who injured a woman paid less than for the same injury to a man. With this rule, we

may compare the practice of one of the northern races. Since women were weaker and to attack them seemed cowardly, this race fixed the *wergild*, or fine for taking human life, at 1200 pieces of coin for a woman and 900 for a man.

Women have played an important part in the making of America. The result of the battle at Tours helped make it possible for the Christian religion to be taken to America and for her women to claim equality with her men.

The British Isles.—The British Isles have exerted more influence on the United States than has any other part of the world. For more than two centuries, England, Ireland, and Scotland furnished the majority of the settlers that laid the foundations of our country and secured its independence.

For nearly four hundred years after the birth of Christ, Britain was a part of the Roman Empire (43–410 A.D.). The ancestors of the English race lived along the North Sea coast of the Continent, and did not come to Britain until after the Romans withdrew their soldiers to protect Rome against the barbarians. Chief of these northern tribes were the Angles and the Saxons. Their language was called Anglo-Saxon, and their new home was soon known as Angle-land (land of the Angles), or England. The Angles and the Saxons had lived remote from Roman influence and knew nothing of Roman law, Christianity, or city life. They destroyed the Roman cities in Britain, tore down the Christian monasteries, and killed the monks who might have taught them. The Anglo-Saxons, or English, were heathen for a century and a half after coming to England. The names of our days of the week show some of the gods they worshiped.

Handsome English children, offered for sale in the slave markets at Rome, caused missionaries to carry Christianity to Anglo-Saxon England. They came to Canterbury, in the south-eastern part of England, and founded a church there (597). The first great English poet, Chaucer, reminds us of this event. In his *Canterbury Tales* he tells of a group of pilgrims who went from London to the shrine of a Christian saint at Canterbury

more than a hundred years before Columbus discovered America. One of the pilgrims was a parish priest, of whom Chaucer says:

". . . . Cristes lore, and his apostles twelve
He taughte, and first he folwed it himselve."

CANTERBURY CATHEDRAL, ENGLAND

Built at intervals from 1174 to 1495, it is a good example of the Gothic style of architecture.

The Normans come to England.—The Normans, or Northmen, a race of the same blood as the English, left their northern home, settled in France, and absorbed Roman civilization. Their chief, William the Conqueror, came to England (1066) and conquered it. The blending of the Anglo-Saxons and the Normans made a new race superior to either of the old ones. The language which people of the United States use to-day is different from what it

would have been if the Normans had not come to England. They spoke French and introduced many words from the Latin. As a result, English is not surpassed in the richness of its vocabulary by any other language. If one becomes really skilled in the use of English, he can express delicate shades of thought, "not easy to render in any other tongue," because there are two sets of words, one from the Anglo-Saxon and one from the Latin, with slight differences of meaning. Examples are "enough" and "ample", "sickness" and "malady." The first of each of these pairs of words comes from the Anglo-Saxon and the second from the Latin through the French. Shakespeare needed words derived from both the Anglo-Saxon and the Latin to express his thoughts. In this description of a beautiful woman, one third of his words came from the Latin:

> "Age cannot wither her nor custom stale
> Her infinite variety."

The Crusades.—The Crusades were a series of pilgrimages and battles to wrest the Holy Land and sepulcher of Christ from the Mohammedans. Crusaders who formed the pilgrim armies came from France, England, Germany, Italy, and other parts of Christian Europe. They flocked to Palestine at various times (beginning 1096) for nearly two hundred years. The Crusaders captured Jerusalem (1099) but it was taken from them (1187) and they finally lost all their possessions in the Holy Land (1291). It was not until the British armies captured Jerusalem more than six hundred years later (1917) that the purpose of the Crusaders seemed to be fulfilled. Men then hoped that Palestine was forever freed from the rule of the Turks.

Influence of the Crusades and the Arabs.—The Crusaders and other Europeans came in contact both with the Turks and with the Arabs, who were a different race of Mohammedans. It was the Turks who showed their barbarous traits in the twentieth century by deporting and killing thousands of Armenian men, women, and children. The Arabs knew more mathematics, medicine, and chemistry than the Christians.

Words like "cipher," "algebra," "alcohol," and "alkali" came from the Arabic. The Arabs gave the Christians the Arabic numerals that we use to-day. Until then, Roman numerals had served for figures, and pupils might have to multiply XCV by LXIV.

The Crusaders learned much from their travels. They saw many better things than they had at home, such as oriental rugs, fine cloth, silks, windmills, and wonderful swords. When they returned, they made some of these at home. The Crusaders learned to like pepper and other spices. The greater desire for travel and the increased knowledge of mathematics and science were steps toward the discovery of America.

The Arabs loved to fill their gardens with new varieties of plants and fruit trees which they found in other countries. They brought these to Sicily and Spain when they settled there. The morning glory, cotton plant, sugar cane, orange, watermelon, and many other plants which later were taken to America, were probably brought to Europe by the Arabs.

The stage setting and actors for a new period.—We may think of human progress as a stage on which actors play their parts. Actors from Phœnicia, the Holy Land, Arabia, ancient Greece and Rome, have already appeared and made their exit. The new stage setting for the drama of human progress during the thousand years following the overthrow of the Western Roman Empire shows only central and western Europe.

The scenery of this stage pictures a stone fort or castle with moat and drawbridge (p. 13). The lord of the castle is one of the great actors in the play. He enters in armor, followed by all whom he protects in return for service: knights, archers, and peasants who till his soil. The scene shifts and we see a Gothic cathedral (picture, p. 9), a poem in stone, a structure as beautiful as man ever built. Not far from it are monasteries, the only schools and colleges of the age. The great church actors come slowly on the stage, the Pope with his miter and robes embroidered in gold, followed by his cardinals in red robes. Kings, lords of castles, knights, archers, and peasants enter and

kneel before them. A slight shifting of the scenery shows the monk teaching in the monastery and the parish priest visiting the poor and sick.

The curtain rises on a new act, and one of the old stage sign boards, marked "Renaissance" (rĕn-ĕ-säns′) or "Revival of Learning" is hung out by way of explaining what is to follow. The actors are now seen at their work. Two poets, the Italian Dante and the English Chaucer, are writing in Italian and in English, instead of in Latin, which until now has been the language of literature. One actor is experimenting with the mariner's compass, another is trying to improve gunpowder, a third is making movable type from which he prints a book, while one who has been laboriously copying manuscripts by hand leaves the stage. Artists are painting pictures. A man hurries on the stage with an armful of Greek manuscripts, exclaiming: "The Turks have captured Constantinople [1453] and driven out the scholars, who are coming to Italy with the writings of the Greeks." A few students of science are trying to find out for themselves whether certain things are true, whether the sun does revolve around the earth, whether the world is flat, instead of following blindly the assertions of older writers.

One man with a globe in his hand stands in the wing of the theater, impatiently waiting his turn to come on the stage. A scarlet cloak drapes his erect and commanding figure. He has the expression of one who has dreamed a great dream which he believes will come true and make his name immortal. The curtain falls to prepare the stage for the act in which he will appear.

Summary of Points of Emphasis for Review.—(1) Why America cannot be called a "self-made" nation, (2) America's debt to the Hebrews, Phœnicians, and Egyptians, (3) what we owe to the Greeks, (4) our inheritance from the Romans, (5) how Rome helped save civilization, (6) the conquest of the Roman Empire by the northern races and the result, (7) what the northern races gave us, (8) why Europe remained Christian, (9) the Angles and Saxons, (10) influence of the Norman conquest upon England, (11) the Crusades, (12) new actors, (13) the Renaissance.

A Castle of the Middle Ages

Notice the gate, and behind it the partly lowered drawbridge for crossing the moat. The chief buildings in Europe in the Middle Ages (about 800 to 1500) were cathedrals and castles (p. 11).

Activities.—Explain how the Hebrews, Phœnicians, and Egyptians helped us.

From Hawthorne's *Tanglewood Tales* or *Wonder Book*, Kingsley's *Greek Heroes*, or Church's *Stories from Homer* read a story that illustrates Greek mythology or life and retell it to the class.

Notice public buildings or pictures of such buildings, to see if any show Greek influence.

Write a one-hundred-word essay on America's debt to the Romans.

Find in the dictionary the meanings of the names of the days of the week. What do they tell about the Anglo-Saxons?

(The teacher might read to the class Henry Van Dyke's *The First Christmas Tree*, a story of the conversion of one of the northern tribes to Christianity. The class might then dramatize it or retell it to another class or to the people at home.)

Explain in one sentence each, the origin of these modern languages: English, French, Spanish, and Italian.

Ask your teacher or some older person to tell you more about the Crusades and the Revival of Learning; or read about them in Nida's *Dawn of American History in Europe*, 201–231, 318–324, or in other reference books. Show how the Crusades helped to bring about the discovery of America.

Make a map of Europe, including Asia Minor, and show by different colors: (a) lands from which the Crusaders came, (b) where the Arabs lived, (c) the Holy Land.

Dramatize the last section of the chapter or make a moving picture by pasting on a strip of paper pictures of the scenes mentioned.

References for Teachers.—Seignobos, *Ancient Civilization;* Morey, *Outlines of Greek History*, IV., XXVI.–XXIX.; Elson, *Modern Times and the Living Past;* Harding, *New Medieval and Modern History*, 7–97, 132–185; Emerton, *Introduction to the Middle Ages;* Emerton, *Medieval Europe*, I., XI., XIII.–XV.; Robinson, *History of Western Europe*, I.–VI., IX., XV., XVIII., XIX., XXII.; Seignobos, *Medieval and Modern Civilization;* Bulwer-Lytton, *Last Days of Pompeii* and *Harold, the Last of the Saxon Kings* (fiction); Kingsley, *Hereward the Wake* (fiction).

For Pupils.—Nida, *Dawn of American Hist. in Europe*, I.–XXVII.; Harding, *Story of England*, IV., VIII., XI.; Harding, *Story of the Middle Ages;* Tappan, *Our European Ancestors*, 1–142.

Fiction: Pyle, *Men of Iron;* Pyle, *Otto of the Silver Hand;* Stein, *Gabriel and the Hour Book.*

CHAPTER II

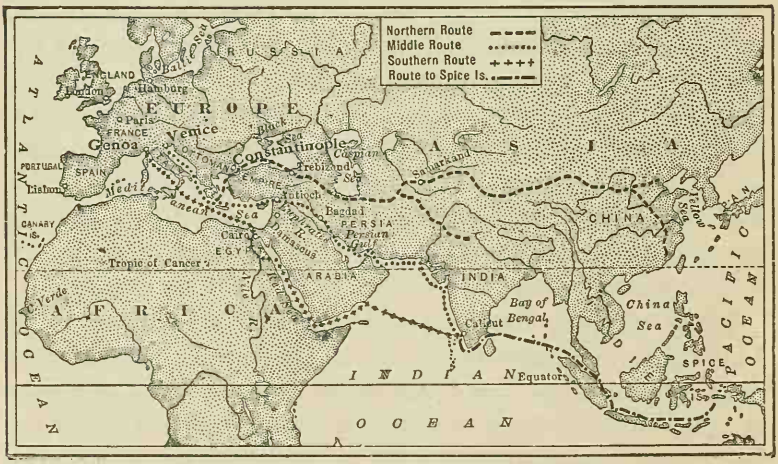
DISCOVERY, EXPLORATION, AND EARLY COLONIZATION

Christopher Columbus.—The man whom we saw waiting to play his part on the stage of the world's history (p. 12) was Christopher Columbus (1451?–1506), of Genoa (jĕn′ō-ȧ), Italy. If we were asked to make a list of names known to almost every person in civilized lands, we should be surprised at the small number. Columbus is one of the few known to nearly all. He was the son of a weaver and dealer in wool, who sent the boy to a school which the weavers maintained for their children. Tradition says that one great book had a powerful effect on his dreams. This was the *Book of Marco Polo*, the story of one of the world's great travelers (about 1254 to 1324). Polo was a Venetian (ve-nē′shan), or citizen of Ven′ice, who journeyed east until he reached China, where he spent many years. He traveled through China to the Yellow Sea and learned of the existence of Japan. He visited the East Indies and India. Columbus read in Polo's book of quantities of spices sufficient to whet the appetites of all Europe, of precious stones that dazzled the eye, of cloths of silk and gold, of the ruler of China clothed in robes of gold, of roofs of houses shingled with gold. Polo's mention of a great ocean beyond China set Columbus to studying maps and charts. He concluded that this ocean must be the same as the Atlantic, and he dreamed that he would be the first to cross it from Europe to Asia.

Trade with the East.—Steamships now bring things easily from China and India to Europe and America. Most of them come by way of the Suez Canal or the Panama Canal or around the Cape of Good Hope. Goods may now be carried through the interior of Asia by railroad. We can get fresh meat from Aus-

tralia. If Marco Polo or any intelligent Venetian merchant who lived before 1487 could revisit the earth, he would not understand the meaning of any of the four preceding sentences. Steamships, America, the great canals, the Cape of Good Hope, railroads, and Australia would be alike unknown to him. He might ask what we meant by "fresh meat from Australia." If we told him that meat would remain fresh enough to eat at the end of a voyage of over ten thousand miles, he might feel like praying for the safety of our souls.

If we asked this Venetian merchant how things were brought from the East in his time, he might reply: "There were three chief routes of trade from Asia and the far-off Spice Islands. The northernmost way led from China and India to the Black Sea and Constantinople. A middle route came by the Persian Gulf and the valley of the Euphrates (ū-frā′tēz) to the Mediterranean port of Antioch (ăn′tĭ-ŏk). The third route was by water along the southern coast of Asia to the Red Sea, thence across land to the Nile River, and down it to the Mediterranean. Almost all the merchandise that came by these three routes was taken by ships to Venice or Genoa on the last stage of the



TRADE ROUTES BETWEEN EUROPE AND THE EAST

PERSIAN CAMELS OF TO-DAY

Camels like these were the chief means of overland transportation in Asia in the time of Columbus.

journey. On the overland part of the route the goods were carried by caravans on the backs of animals, usually camels."

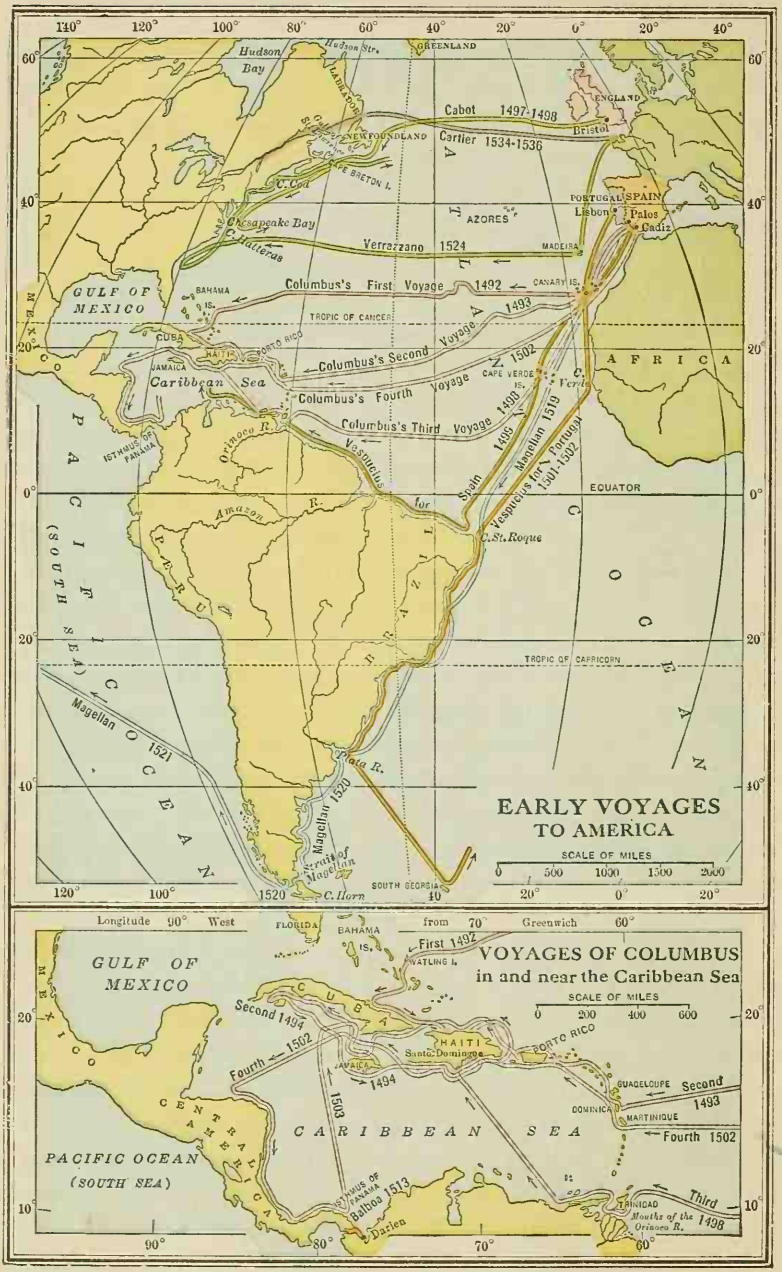
We might ask the Venetian merchant: "What did the East bring you and what did you give it in exchange?" And he might answer: "The East sent us such spices as pepper, nutmegs, cloves, cinnamon, and ginger. We used these to help preserve food as well as to disguise the taste of things after they were partly spoiled or poorly cooked. Spices make things tasty and palatable. You speak of carrying fresh meat thousands of miles, but that seems impossible. When it was brought only a few leagues from the country to our cities, we often needed to pepper it well before we could eat it. We Venetians used to import shiploads of pepper, which we prized next to gold. A ransom of pepper, paid by the city of Rome, once kept the northern barbarians from destroying it. We also got beautiful rugs from the East, better than we could make, and Damascus swords that would bend double. My ships received from caravans at Mediterranean ports such articles as pearls, rubies, diamonds, drugs, dyes, sugar, and fine woven fabrics. In exchange for such

things, we sent grain, oil, honey, metals, soap, cloth, leather, and furs."

The new problem.—The cost of bringing and sending things by caravans was very high, and Europe could not in this way get enough Eastern merchandise to supply her increasing wants. How to transport large quantities of things to and from the East was a great problem which Columbus tried to solve. The Revival of Learning was the chief cause of setting the problem. It made men wish to travel to learn more about the world. When men know more, they want more, and knowledge helps them to get more. The invention of the mariner's compass and the knowledge of how to use it were necessary before traders could sail to distant lands. The old caravan way of bringing things from the East would not answer as the world grew more intelligent and its wants increased.

Religion also increased the desire to visit strange lands to save the souls of heathen, and this helped to solve the new problem. Prince Henry of Portugal, known as the Navigator, was perhaps moved as much by religion as by desire for trade when he sent ship after ship farther and farther south on voyages of discovery along the west shore of Africa. His efforts were steps toward solving the problem of trade with India. Seventeen years after his death, a Portuguese captain rounded the Cape of Good Hope (1487). Before another Portuguese, Vasco da Gama (väs'kō dä gä'mä), reached India (1497) on the first voyage by this eastern route, Columbus had made the greatest voyage of exploration in the history of the world.

Nearly forty years before the great voyage of Columbus, the capture of Constantinople by the Turks had interfered with the northern trade route from the East. We are not sure that the Turks stopped enough imports to hasten the voyages of discovery. America had been discovered and India reached before the Turks closed the southern trade routes. The increase of knowledge and of wants did more than the Turks to make voyages of discovery possible and desirable.

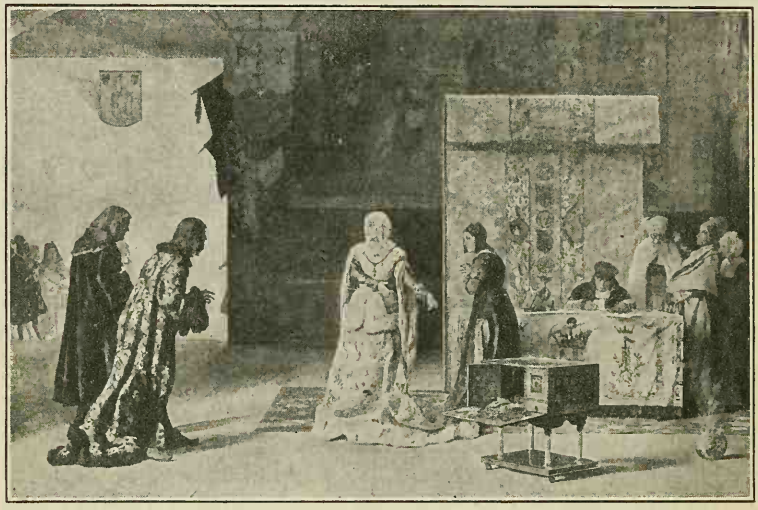

EARLY VOYAGES
TO AMERICA
SCALE OF MILES
0 500 1000 1500 2000
Hudson Bay
GREENLAND
ENGLAND
Bristol
Cabot 1497-1498
NEWFOUNDLAND
Cartier 1534-1536
C. Cod
Chesapeake Bay
C. Hatteras
Verrazzano 1524
AZORES
PORTUGAL
SPAIN
Lisbon
Palos
Cadiz
MADEIRA
CANARY IS.
GULF OF MEXICO
BAHAMA IS.
Columbus's First Voyage 1492
1493
TROPIC OF CANCER
CUBA
HAITI
PORTO RICO
JAMAICA
Caribbean Sea
Columbus's Second Voyage 1493
Columbus's Fourth Voyage 1502
CAPE VERDE IS.
Columbus's Third Voyage 1498
Vespucius 1499
Magellan 1519
Vespucius for Portugal 1501-1502
Spain
ISTHMUS OF PANAMA
Orinoco R.
Amazon R.
EQUATOR
C. St. Roque
TROPIC OF CAPRICORN
Magellan 1521
Plata R.
Strait of Magellan 1520
C. Horn
SOUTH GEORGIA
AFRICA
EUROPE
ASIA
PACIFIC OCEAN (SOUTH SEA)
ATLANTIC OCEAN
Longitude 90° West from 70° Greenwich
VOYAGES OF COLUMBUS
in and near the Caribbean Sea
SCALE OF MILES
0 200 400 600
First 1492
WATLING I.
Second 1494
Fourth 1502
1494
1503
Santo Domingo
GUADELOUPE
Second 1493
DOMINICA
MARTINIQUE
Fourth 1502
CARIBBEAN SEA
CENTRAL AMERICA
ISTHMUS OF PANAMA
Balboa 1513
Darien
Third
TRINIDAD
Mouths of the Orinoco R. 1498

What Columbus did to make his dream come true.—The new knowledge made Columbus dream of attempting what no mortal had yet done. Many dream, but few do their best to make their dreams come true. Columbus was unlike the majority. In order to realize his dream of crossing the ocean from Europe to Asia, he tried to learn all that was known of geography, and he mastered the art of sailing a vessel. He smiled at many who still believed that the world was flat. "Even if it is round, it is possible to sail so far down hill that you cannot sail back," said some who tried to discourage him. He took long voyages and found no uphill or downhill on the ocean. "I sailed," says Columbus, "in the month of February, 1477, a hundred leagues beyond the island of Thule (thū'lē)." Some think that Thule was Iceland and that Columbus might have heard there of the Norsemen (Northmen) who, more than 400 years earlier, had crossed from Iceland and Greenland to a place which they called Vinland, somewhere on the coast of North America. The Norsemen, however, added nothing definite to the geographical knowledge of the time of Columbus, and nothing important to American history. He took southern voyages with Portuguese sailors and learned by experience the falsity of the stories of a boiling sea near the equator and of monsters that lay in wait to swallow a ship at one mouthful.

In order to get vessels to sail to the land of his dreams, Columbus tried for years to persuade the king of Portugal and later the king of Spain to furnish him with ships for his western voyage across the Atlantic. He felt sure that he could reach India by sailing west 6,500 miles from Lisbon. It was fortunate that scholars then thought the world smaller than it is and that they did not know of the existence of a great continent between Europe and the rich lands which Marco Polo had described. Columbus might not have sailed if he had known the truth.

The greatest of all voyages.—After years of delay that would have discouraged most men, the king of Spain finally lent Columbus three small vessels for his voyage: the *Santa Maria*

(sän'tä mä-rē'ä) of one hundred tons, the *Pinta* (pēn'tä) of fifty, and the *Niña* (nēn'yä) of forty. When we realize that few passenger ships as small as 10,000 tons now ply between New York and Europe, we may better realize the danger in such tiny



QUEEN ISABELLA PLEDGING HER JEWELS

This eighteenth-century painting, by Nuños Degrain, illustrates the story, of which there is no historical proof, that Queen Isabella of Spain pawned her jewels to raise money for the voyage of Columbus. The picture shows the costume and decorations of the time.

craft. The three vessels sailed from Palos (pä'lōs), Spain, August 3, 1492, stopped at the Canary Islands, and then turned west into a vast unknown sea. At one time they plowed their way for nearly a fortnight through patches of floating seaweed. The sailors feared this might become thick enough to entangle the ships and keep them from returning. Everything, too, began to seem strange. There were unknown birds, and flying fish; even the compass needle varied a little from its usual direction. The sailors mutinied and demanded that Columbus should return, but he had the genius to control them. He kept them sailing west from the Canaries for thirty-five days until, on October 12, 1492, he landed on one of the Bahama Islands.

He took possession of the island in the name of Spain. He called the natives " Indians " because he thought he had reached the Indies, the name then given to southeastern Asia, including the East Indies and India.

He continued his exploration and discovered a number of other islands, including Cuba and Haiti (hā′tĭ). A pilot, against the orders of Columbus, one night entrusted the steering of the *Santa Maria* to a boy, who wrecked her on a reef. The other

MEMORIAL TO COLUMBUS IN WASHINGTON, D. C.

In front of the railroad station in the national capital, where it is seen by many people from every state in the Union.

two little vessels could not carry her crew back to Spain, so forty-four men were left to form a settlement in Haiti.

When Columbus returned from this great voyage, Spain gave him the title of " Admiral of the Ocean " and made great plans for trade with Asia by the new route. Millions more have honored Columbus by coming to the New World which he had really discovered. Most of our states have made October twelfth, the date of his discovery, a holiday which we call Columbus Day. The written history of America begins with Columbus.

Other voyages.—Columbus made three more voyages to America. On his second voyage (1493) he found that the

Indians had killed all of the colony that he had left in Haiti, but he made another settlement on this island and was thus the first to establish a European colony in the New World. On his third voyage he discovered the mainland of South America at the mouths of the Orinoco River (1498). On his fourth and last voyage (1502) he explored the coast of Central America, trying to find a passage through it to India.

Columbus died (1506) without knowing that he had discovered a New World. All the islands and coasts seen by Columbus were for some time after his death supposed to be in or near southeastern Asia. When the coast of Brazil was explored by Americus Vespucius (ves-pū′shĭ-us, 1451–1512), an Italian in the service of Portugal, this was thought to be a new continent which had not been discovered by Columbus. The name America was given to it in honor of the one who was supposed to be its discoverer. This name was later applied to all the New World. Nothing, however, has been able to deprive Columbus of the glory of his discovery.

The first voyage around the world.—The sailor who ranks next to Columbus is Ferdinand Magellan (mȧ-jĕl′an, 1480–1521), a Portuguese who made a famous voyage in the service of Spain. Before this he had sailed by way of the Cape of Good Hope to the far East Indies, which were claimed by Portugal. The Pope as head of the Christian church had divided all newly discovered lands between Spain and Portugal. These two countries then agreed that Spain should receive all the new lands west of a certain meridian, which runs through the eastern part of Brazil, and that new lands east of that meridian should belong to Portugal. Portugal claimed the Spice Islands, in the East Indies, because they were reached by sailing east. Magellan determined to secure them for Spain by sailing west to them.

He started on his voyage in 1519, searched for a way through South America, and finally found the strait which now bears his name. He sailed through this narrow passage, 360 miles long, to the Pacific Ocean. He called that ocean " Pacific " because

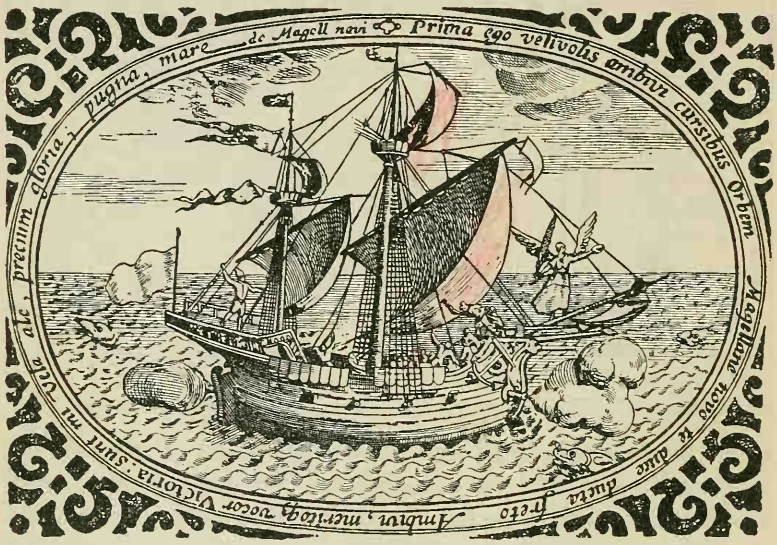
BALBOA TAKES POSSESSION OF THE SOUTH SEA

From an engraving in a Spanish history (Herrera's *Historia General*) printed in 1601 and later years.

of its gentle winds, which drove his ships toward the west. He was not the first white man to see this vast body of water from the American shore, because Balbo'a, a Spaniard, had crossed the Isthmus of Panama (1513), waded into the ocean, which he called "South Sea," and declared that it belonged to Spain. But Magellan was the first to sail a ship westward into that "silent sea."

For three months Magellan sailed west across an ocean more vast than men had dreamed. Many of his sailors died from scurvy and hunger. The survivors gnawed leather to keep themselves alive. An Italian with him wrote: "I think that never man will undertake again to perform such a voyage." Magellan finally reached the Philippines, where he was killed by natives. Of the 270 men that sailed from Spain in five vessels only eighteen finished the voyage in the ship *Vittoria*. They sailed around the Cape of Good Hope back to Spain, which they reached three years after the beginning of the voyage

This voyage, planned by Magellan, proved three definite things: (1) that the world is round, (2) that there is between southern America and Asia a body of water much larger than the one Columbus crossed, (3) that the world is larger than Columbus thought.



An Old Print of Magellan's Ship, the Vittoria (Victory)

The winged figure in the bow represents Victory, the guiding spirit of the voyage. The Latin written around the picture begins thus: I am the first ship that circumnavigated the globe. Mine was a sail-winged course, and thou, Magellan, my captain, didst take me through a new strait. I sailed around the world, and so I am rightly called Victory.

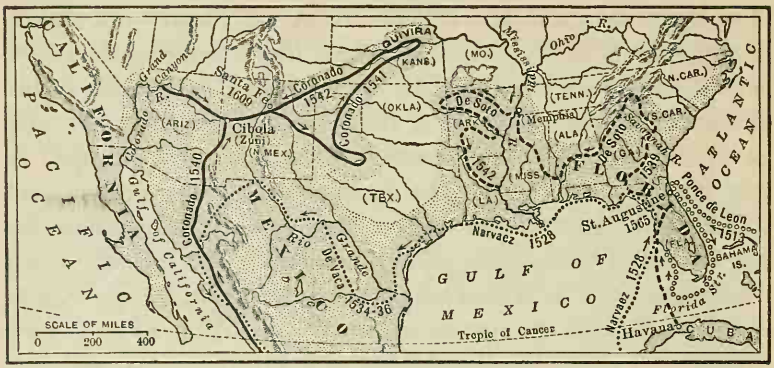
Spanish colonization in Central and South America.—The Spanish city of Santo Domin'go in Haiti dates from 1496. In twenty years after Columbus came, there were seventeen Spanish towns in Haiti alone. The Spanish soon made settlements in Porto Rico, Jamaica, and Cuba. While Magellan was sailing around the world, Hernando Cortes (kôr'tĕs), a Spanish leader, marched into Mexico and conquered a people known as the Aztecs. They had well-cultivated farms, fine buildings, and cities. They also had vast quantities of gold and jewels, which the Spaniards took. Mexico became a Spanish colony.

A band of Spaniards led by Francisco Pizarro (pĭ-zär′rō) went a little later (1531) to Peru, where they conquered the Incas, a race even more wealthy than the Aztecs. The Spaniards imprisoned the Inca king in a room twenty-two feet long and seventeen wide. For his ransom he filled this room with gold as high as he could reach. The Spaniards took the ransom and afterward killed the king. From Peru as a center, the Spanish spread north and south. They colonized Mexico, the lands washed by the Caribbe′an Sea, the western part of South America, and the country south of Brazil, including what is now Uruguay, Paraguay, and Argentina. With the exception of Brazil, which belonged to Portugal, Spain for a long time owned all the European colonies in the New World.

The dreams of Columbus about the wealth of the Indies did not equal the reality of the New World. Shiploads of gold and silver from its mines kept pouring into Spain. The treasure which came to Spain from the New World made her supreme on land and sea.

Spanish exploration in North America.—Ponce de Leon (pōn′-thā dā lā-ōn′), a Spanish planter from Porto Rico, discovered at Easter time (1513) a land of flowers which he called Florida. He has the honor of being the first European to furnish a name for one of the United States. He intended to found a colony in Florida and to find there a fabled Fountain of Youth whose waters restored youth to the aged. He did not plant the colony or find the fountain, but his search for the fountain causes him to be remembered.

Two noted Spanish explorers, Hernando de So′to and Francisco Coronado (kō-rō-nä′thō), started at about the same time from opposite sides of the continent to search for gold in North America. De Soto landed in Florida with a large company (1539), and he and his men wandered for nearly four years through regions now included in many of our southern states. He had been told of a land of perpetual sunshine where the Indians wore hats of gold, but he failed to find the precious metal



Spanish Explorations: Routes of De Soto and Coronado

which was the object of his exploration. He died on his return journey and was buried in the Mississippi River. His men descended it in boats and were the first Europeans to navigate that stream.

Coronado started north (1540) from Mexico to find the Seven Cities which the Indians said had doors ornamented with blue gems dropped like feathers from the wings of the sky. The Indians also told of long streets where none but goldsmiths lived and worked among piles of gold. These cities proved to be nothing but the poor stone homes of the Zuñi (zo͞o′nyē) Indians in what is now the state of New Mexico. Coronado continued his search, probably to central Kansas, not far from where De Soto turned back. Neither of these explorers founded a colony. Both failed in their chief object of discovering gold.

These two expeditions were important for the knowledge which they gave of the interior of the country. Only the mouth of the Mississippi River had been seen, by a Spanish explorer named Narvaez (när-vä′āth), before De Soto crossed it. Coronado's expedition discovered the Grand Canyon of the Colorado River and found the vast central plains abounding in maize and buffaloes. These and other expeditions gave Spain a claim to a great southern and western territory in North America.

Spanish colonization and possessions in North America.— In 1600 there were only two Spanish colonies within the present bounds of the United States, one at St. Au'gustine (1565) in Florida and the other in New Mexico (1598), near Santa Fe (fā). The failure to find gold made Spain take less interest in planting colonies north of Mexico and the Gulf of Mexico.

By 1800, however, as we shall see later, Spain's North American possessions included nearly all that part of the present United States west of the Mississippi River, and also Florida, which was the name for both the peninsula and the land along the Gulf of Mexico west to the Mississippi. California and the

SPANISH MISSION IN SOUTHERN CALIFORNIA
San Luis Rey Mission, built in 1790.

southwestern United States show the influence of the Spanish language in the names of towns and natural features. Los Angeles (lōs ăng'gĕl-ĕs) is "[City of] the Angels"; San Francisco, "St. Francis"; Santa Fe, "holy faith"; Pueblo (pwĕb'lō), "village"; Sierra Nevada, "snowy mountain range."

In California, New Mexico, and Texas there are many interesting old buildings, called missions. These were built for

Spanish missionaries whose aim was to teach the Indians religion and useful arts and trades and to care for them when sick.

Importance of Spain's work in the New World.—Spain showed other nations the way to the New World. She both discovered and colonized it first. There is danger of underrating what Spain did. It is hard for us to realize to-day that Spain planted so many colonies in the New World and looked after them so carefully that they remained under her control for three hundred years and finally developed into eighteen republics.

It has been said that the Spaniards were swayed by three motives in colonizing the New World: "gospel, glory, and gold." History usually emphasizes only their desire for gold. That motive is shown in their treatment of the Aztecs and Incas and in their preference for colonizing lands where there was gold. It is equally true that many Spaniards desired to spread the gospel. Columbus had the cross as the sign of the redemption of the world painted on the sails of the ship that bore him to the New World. Spanish priests faced discomfort, disease, and death to teach the gospel to the Indians, and to protect them from injustice, cruelty, and slavery. Without their aid, Spain could not have been so successful in colonizing the New World.

England's claim to a share in the New World.—England became Spain's greatest rival in colonizing the New World. John Cab'ot, an Italian in the service of Henry VII, king of England (reigned from 1485 to 1509), was inspired by the voyage of Columbus to sail west from Bristol, England, until he saw land, perhaps Cape Bret'on Island or New'foundland (1497). King Henry at once gave him a reward for finding "the New Ile" and in the same year granted him an annual pension. The next year (1498) Cabot and his son Sebastian went on another voyage of discovery. It is probable that he sailed as far south as Cape Hatteras, and he may even have been the first to see the North American continent. His voyages are of unusual importance to Americans, because his discoveries gave England the

basis of her claim to the New World. From his voyages sprang stories of " the gold mines of the sea," as the northern fisheries were called. The story ran that he found fish numerous enough to stop his ship in the vicinity of Newfoundland. Such stories sent thousands of fishing vessels on the course of his first voyage.

Religious differences and their result.—Before the discovery of America, the nations of western Europe knew but one Christian church. This was the Roman Catholic Church, of which the Pope was head. About a quarter of a century after Columbus found the New World, Martin Luther championed a religious movement known as Protestantism, which differed from the Catholic Church in some matters of faith, and soon denied the authority of the Pope.

In the struggle that followed in most of the countries of western Europe, Catholics and Protestants persecuted each other, sometimes in the most cruel ways. Nations, and parties in the same nation, even went to war because they held different beliefs. We need to remember such facts to realize how much the world has improved. To-day, Protestants and Catholics live side by side and work and fight together for the same good things under a Constitution which has enacted that " Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion or prohibiting the free exercise thereof."

Protestant England and Catholic Spain.—In England there was no religious war, but there was a long period of persecution, during which the nation gradually became Protestant. Most Englishmen have been Protestants since the reign of Queen Elizabeth (from 1558 to 1603). English laws then required all subjects to worship in the Church of England, and punished by fine or imprisonment both Catholics and Protestants who did not attend its service. The Pope issued a declaration that Elizabeth's subjects need not obey her; but nearly all of them remained loyal. Spain was the leading Roman Catholic country, and for many years the subjects of the Spanish king and of the English queen were enemies. England determined to break the

power of Spain on the sea, so that she could not monopolize the New World.

Elizabethan seamen.—English seamen in the days of Elizabeth became the most daring and skillful in the world. Spain would allow none but Spaniards to trade with her colonies in the New World. John Hawkins (1532–1595), of Plymouth, England, was a great Elizabethan sea captain who put to the test Spain's power to keep him from trading with the New World. He loaded a little fleet of vessels with negro slaves from Africa and forced the Spanish officials to allow him to sell them in the West Indies and South America (1562). An English historian says: "The history of the English in America practically begins with the three slave-trading voyages of John Hawkins of Plymouth." If it had not been for the determination of Elizabethan seamen to humble Spain, there might have been no English colonies and no United States.

The greatest of the Elizabethan seamen was Francis Drake (1545–1596). When Shakespeare was a boy of thirteen, Drake started (1577) on a trip to the Pacific to seize Spanish treasure and test the power of Spain. He sailed through the Strait of Magellan and surprised the Spanish, who did not believe that an English vessel would venture into the Pacific. What the English thought of the energy of the Spanish in the tropics may be seen in this story of one of the incidents of Drake's voyage: "We found by the seaside a Spaniard lying asleep, who had by him thirteen bars of silver. We took the silver and left the man." Drake pillaged the Spanish settlements on the South American coast, overhauled treasure ships, and took from them tons of gold and silver. When he caught the great treasure ship *Spitfire* on her way to Panama to send her treasure across the Isthmus to be shipped to Spain, he took from her twenty-six tons of silver. A bright Spanish boy said that her name should have been the *Spitsilver*.

Drake wintered in a harbor near the site of San Francisco and took possession of the country in the name of Queen Eliza-

beth. He then returned to England by way of the Pacific and the Indian Ocean. His ship, the *Golden Hind*, in which he made the voyage, was the first English vessel to circumnavigate the globe. The queen ordered the *Golden Hind* to be preserved as

QUEEN ELIZABETH VISITS FRANCIS DRAKE ON THE GOLDEN HIND

a monument to Drake and to England. When the vessel decayed a century later, a chair was made of its sound timbers and presented to Oxford University, where it may still be seen.

The Armada.—As the representative of Catholic Europe, Philip II, king of Spain, determined to crush England. His army was in Holland, ready for the invasion. He had such vast wealth from the gold and silver mines of the New World that he was able to build and assemble the Arma'da, a fleet of 150 ships which he thought invincible. Some of the ships were so huge that they looked like great castles in the water. Each ship flew the banner of the cross as the sign of a crusade against English Protestants.

Drake and Hawkins were officers in the English fleet which met the Armada in the English Channel. The skilled Elizabethan seamen handled the smaller English vessels so well that the contest seemed like hornets attacking a drove of oxen. The Armada anchored at night for safety, and Drake sent fire ships drifting among them. The Spanish ships had to cut their cables and flee. They tried to escape by sailing around the north of Scotland, but met severe storms. Only one third of the Armada made its way back to Spain.

The year 1588, in which Spain lost control of the ocean through the defeat of the Armada, is one of the great dates in history. England could not have colonized the New World if Spain had kept control of the sea.

Sixteenth-century English attempts at colonization.—The first English attempts to found colonies in America were made by Sir Humphrey Gilbert and his half brother, Sir Walter Raleigh (rô′li). Raleigh, who was a favorite courtier of Queen Elizabeth, was a soldier and a writer as well as an explorer. Gilbert was one of those who searched for the Northwest Passage to the Pacific. This search continued at intervals until the nineteenth century, when the passage was finally found, but so far north that it proved useless. Gilbert had the first English charter for American colonization, and he tried to found a colony in Newfoundland (1583) but failed. He was lost with his little ship in trying to return to England.

Sir Walter Raleigh did more than any other one man to help prepare the way for the future English colonization of America. He sent an exploring expedition along the coast in the vicinity of Cape Hatteras and named the adjacent country Virginia in honor of the unmarried Queen Elizabeth. He made two unsuccessful attempts to plant a colony on Ro′anoke Island, near the mainland of North Carolina. The first colonists returned. The second colony of 150 is known as the "Lost Colony," for after they were left on the island (1587) not one of them was again seen by an Englishman. It is supposed that they were massacred

by Indians. Raleigh spent on his colonies more than the value of a million dollars to-day and proved to Englishmen that the planting of new colonies was too expensive for one man. The sixteenth century ended without any permanent English colony in the New World.

France and the New World.—France was another rival of Spain in trying to secure territory in the New World. Although she was a Catholic country, she was jealous of Spain and sometimes at war with her. After the fashion of Spain and England, she employed an Italian captain, John Verrazzano (vĕr-rät-sä′nō), to go on a voyage of exploration (1524) to see if he could find the Indies by sailing west. He was the first European to explore parts of the east coast of North America. Visitors to New York may see his statue in Battery Park, looking toward New York Bay, which he had the honor of discovering.

STATUE OF VERRAZZANO IN THE CITY OF NEW YORK
Erected by the Italians of New York in 1909.

The Frenchman Jacques Cartier (zhȧk kär-tyā′), in three voyages (1534, 1535, 1536), gave France a title to Canada by exploration. He sailed up the St. Lawrence River, trying to find a northwest passage to China, but he was stopped by rapids which he called "Lachine" (lȧ-shēn′) or the China Rapids. He gave the site of Montreal (mŏnt-re-ôl′) its present name and built a fort where Quebec′ now stands, but he founded no colony.

When Hawkins began his slave trade with the Spanish colonies (p. 30), France had nearly a half million Protestants, called

Huguenots (hū′gē-nŏts). They were persecuted, and thousands of them were killed in the religious struggles in France. This persecution shows why many Huguenots came later to America. They made a settlement (1564) on the St. Johns River in Florida, but the Spaniards destroyed the colony and hanged the settlers. Neither France nor England founded a successful colony in the New World during the sixteenth century.

Summary of Points of Emphasis for Review.—(1) Trade routes, (2) articles of eastern commerce, (3) part played by the Revival of Learning, religion, and Henry the Navigator in helping solve the problem of eastern trade, (4) Columbus and his work, (5) why the New World was called "America," (6) Magellan, (7) Spanish colonization in the West Indies and South America, (8) Aztecs and Incas, (9) Spanish exploration in North America, (10) Spain's sixteenth-century colonies and possessions in North America, (11) Spanish names in the southwestern United States, (12) Spanish missions, (13) motives of "gospel, glory, and gold," (14) basis of England's claim to part of the New World, (15) rise of Protestantism, (16) work of Elizabethan seamen, (17) defeat of the Armada, (18) sixteenth-century English attempts at colonization, (19) French exploration and colonization.

Activities.—Draw a map showing three trade routes from the East.

Imagine yourself to be a Portuguese seaman of the fifteenth century and tell the class about one of your voyages, the preparation, dangers, fears, hopes.

Read what Marco Polo says of his travels (Brooks, *Story of Marco Polo*). Write such a letter as he might have written, describing one of the places that he visited.

Within one hundred words state the new problem of eastern trade and show what helped to solve it.

Explain why the work of Columbus entitles him to be called one of the great men of all time.

Read the poem *Columbus* by Joaquin Miller and memorize the stanza that you like best.

Make a map of North and South America. Show in color the territory gained by Spain in her prime.

Read the account of John Cabot by Two Italian Gentlemen (1497) in Hart's *Colonial Children*, 7–8, and *The Joke of the Pilot's Boy* (1578) in the same book, 23–25.

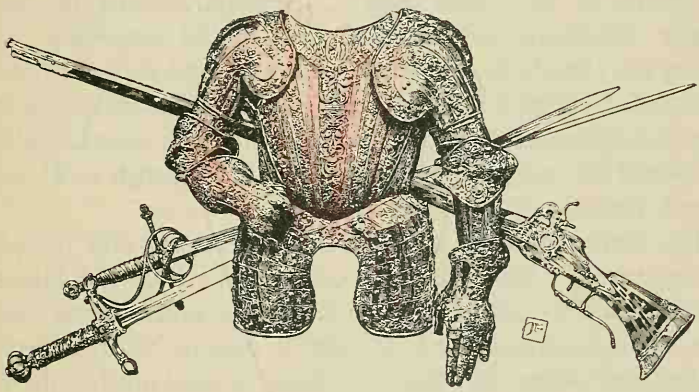
Explain why John Hawkins and Francis Drake have a place in American history. Trace on a map Drake's voyage after leaving the Strait of Magellan.

Tell why the defeat of the Armada is regarded as a great event in history.

On a map show where the English and French attempted to settle in the New World before 1600.

References for Teachers.—Cheney, *European Background of American History*, 3–103; Richman, *Spanish Conquerors* (Chronicles of America); Bolton, *Spanish Border Lands* (Chron. of Am.); Winsor, *Narrative and Critical Hist. of Am.*, Vols. II., III.; Shea, *Catholic Church in Colonial Days;* Hodge and Lewis, *Spanish Explorers in Southern U. S.;* Fiske, *Discovery of Am.*, I., 256–516, II., 1–426, 483–569; Channing, *Hist. of the U. S.*, I., 1–40; Bourne, *Spain in Am.*, 3–319; Wood, *Elizabethan Sea Dogs* (Chron. of Am.); Hakluyt, *Principal Navigations* (Hawkins and Drake), or Payne, *Voyages of Elizabethan Seamen*, 1–81, 193–272; Hart, *Am. Hist. Told by Contemporaries*, I.

For Pupils.—Nida, *Dawn of Am. Hist. in Europe*, 264–317; Foote and Skinner, *Explorers and Founders of Am.*, 11–85; Brooks, *Story of Marco Polo* and *True Story of Christopher Columbus;* Southworth, *Builders of our Country*, I., 10–72; Hart, *Colonial Children*, 4–6, 12–16; Munroe, *Flamingo Feather* (fiction).



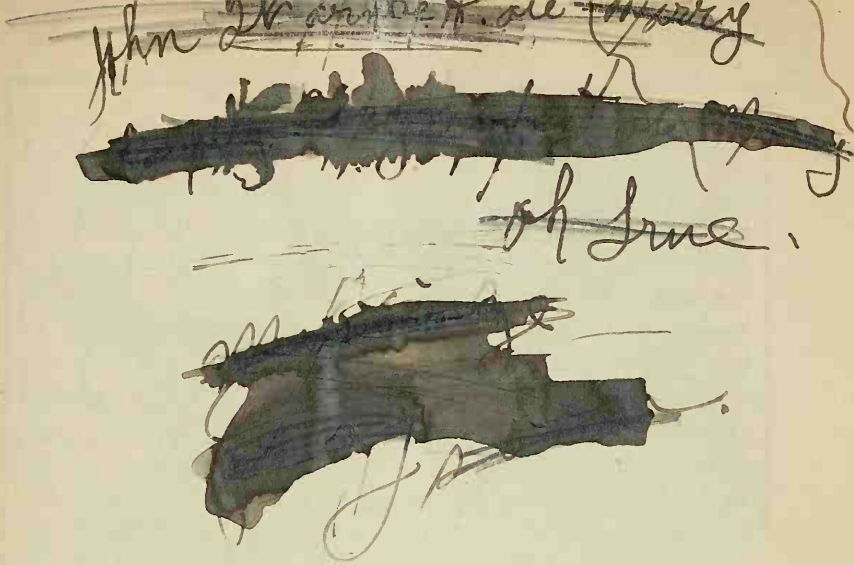
Spanish Arms and Armor

CHAPTER III

NATURAL FEATURES AND NATIVES

Climate and soil.—The continental United States and the greater part of Canada and of Europe are in the temperate zone. The summers are warm enough to raise a great variety of crops, while the winters are sufficiently cold to keep the people vigorous. The change in the seasons of the temperate zone gives variety to life. If the United States had been in either the torrid or the frigid zone, we cannot tell what our history would have been. The greatest men and the most important inventions have come from the temperate zone. The Greeks and Romans and the inventors of the steam engine, telegraph, sewing machine, reaper, telephone, and airplane, lived in the temperate zone, where the climate is neither so hot nor so cold as to keep men from doing varied kinds of work. Climate helps make history. It also helps make literature, for the temperate zone has given the world the majority of its greatest writers, such as Homer, Vergil, Dante, and Shakespeare.

The early European colonists did not realize that the prevailing westerly winds, blowing over Europe from the Atlantic Ocean, made the winters of western Europe much warmer than those of the corresponding latitudes in eastern North America. If they had known this, they could have escaped much suffering. When one hundred and twenty colonists came to the Kennebec' River in Maine (1607), it was so warm that they believed the tales about cinnamon and nutmeg growing there. The men expected to find the usual mild English winter. They had not provided against the cold of a New England winter, and they were barely able to keep from freezing in January. Many died and the rest left the next year and reported the climate "unsuited to Englishmen." It is hard for Americans to realize that



Physical map of the
UNITED STATES
SCALE OF MILES
0 100 200 300 400
ELEVATIONS IN FEET
Over 10,000
5,000 to 10,000
2,000 to 5,000
1,000 to 2,000
500 to 1,000
Under 500
Natural Forest Regions
Portages
Longitude West from Greenwich
120 110 100 90 80 70
40 30
PACIFIC OCEAN
ATLANTIC OCEAN
GULF OF MEXICO
CANADA
Mt. Rainier
Columbia R.
Great Falls
Missouri R.
Yellowstone R.
Mt. Shasta
Sierra Nevada Mts.
Great Salt Lake
Wasatch Mts.
Green R.
North Platte R.
South Platte R.
Pikes Peak
Mt. Whitney
Colorado R.
Arkansas R.
Canadian R.
Rio Grande
Pecos R.
Gila R.
Red R.
Saskatchewan R.
L. of the Woods
L. Superior
L. Michigan
L. Huron
L. Erie
Ottawa R.
St. Lawrence R.
Adirondack Mts.
Niagara Falls
Mohawk R.
Ohio R.
Mississippi R.
Missouri R.
Cumberland R.
Mt. Mitchell
Appalachian Mts.
Potomac R.
Delaware R.
Hudson R.
New York Bay
C. May
Delaware Bay
C. Hatteras
C. Lookout
C. Fear
C. Canaveral
C. Sable
St. Johns R.
Tampa Bay
Apalachee Bay
Galveston Bay
Rio Grande
Nueces R.
Brazos R.
Trinity R.
Sabine R.
Red R.
Arkansas R.
Mississippi R.
Ohio R.
Missouri R.
Platte R.
Canadian R.
Pecos R.
Gila R.
Colorado R.
Columbia R.
Yellowstone R.
Missouri R.
Great Falls
Mt. Rainier
C. Flattery
C. Blanco
Mt. Shasta
San Francisco Bay
Mt. Whitney
Pt. Conception
Sierra Nevada Mts.
Great Salt Lake
Wasatch Mts.
Green R.
Pikes Peak
Arkansas R.
Canadian R.
Rio Grande
Pecos R.
Gila R.
Colorado R.
Columbia R.
Yellowstone R.
Missouri R.
Great Falls
Mt. Rainier
C. Flattery
C. Blanco
Mt. Shasta
San Francisco Bay
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Sierra Nevada Mts.
Great Salt Lake
Wasatch Mts.
Green R.
Pikes Peak
Arkansas R.
Canadian R.
Rio Grande
Pecos R.
Gila R.
Colorado R.

England and Labrador are in the same latitude, and that Rome in Italy is farther north than New York.

North America has more fertile land than all Europe. The thick black soil of the prairies can grow more wheat and corn than any other part of the world. The climate is sufficiently varied to produce crops as different as rice, oats, cotton, potatoes, and oranges. The rapid progress of the United States is partly explained by the fertility of the soil and the variety of crops.

Forests.—The history of our country would have been different without its forests. There were once nearly a billion acres of land covered with fine trees within the present limits of the continental United States. Our civilization could not have developed without these forests. The early settlers found in them not only animals whose furs found a ready sale in Europe but also deer, rabbits, and game birds, which supplied meat. The trees gave them material for houses, ships, staves, and boards for export to the West Indies. The early colonists did not have coal, so wood was necessary to warm their homes and cook their food. It has been said that " our civilization is built on wood. From the cradle to the coffin, in some shape or other, it surrounds us as a convenience or a necessity."

Materials for manufactures.—The six most necessary articles for manufactures are coal, iron, copper, wood, cotton, and wool. The United States produces all six of these in great quantities — five of them (all but wool) in greater quantities than any other nation. The settlers in America came to a land which had the natural resources to repay their energy and inventiveness and to enable them finally to lead the world in manufactures. Without these chief articles for manufacturing, the United States might have remained a second-rate nation. Every one of them has helped in the making of our history.

Harbors and rivers.—It was fortunate for the colonists that the eastern coast of North America has so many good harbors and rivers. Every river and harbor was an open door for the newcomers.

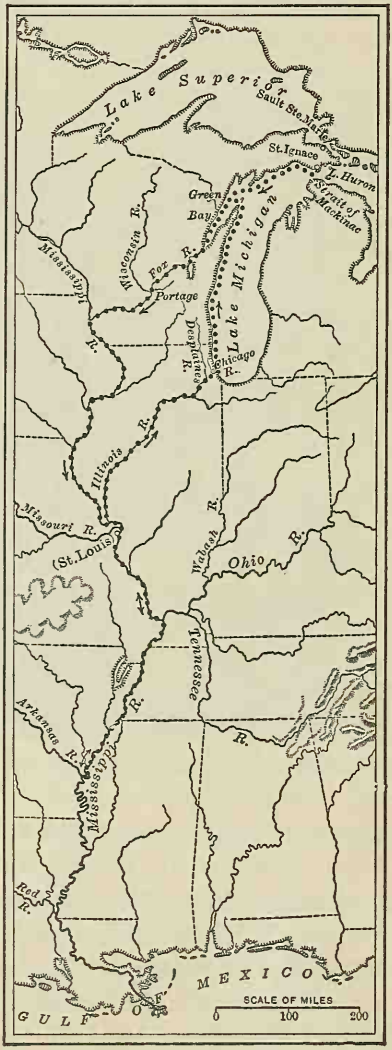
As there were neither railroads nor even wagon roads, the early colonists settled by the harbors or along the streams where boats could easily bring them what they wanted or carry away their produce. The barrier of the Appalachian Mountains was partly responsible for the shortness of the eastern rivers and for keeping the early settlers near the coast. If the colonists had been scattered over a wide area, they might not have combined to secure their later independence. The natural features of the eastern part of our country thus helped to make our history.

Traveling by stream and lake.—It was necessary to explore North America before its worth could be known to attract traders and settlers. When explorers and fur hunters turned their attention inland, they found many streams from which their canoes could be carried across short portages to other bodies of water. Men paddled their canoes from the Hudson River up the Mohawk to the site of the present city of Rome, New York, carried them a mile to a creek which flows into Oneida (o-nī′da) Lake, and passed by the Oswego River to Lake Ontario, where they could follow a long trail of water. The Allegheny (ăl′ē-gā-nĭ) and Ohio rivers were highways down which settlers floated to the interior. If it had not been for the interlacing waterways, the exploration and development of the interior would have been much slower.

How two French explorers traveled.—The French were especially interested in solving the problem of exploring the interior in canoes, by streams and connecting portages. There were three reasons for this interest: (1) the fur trade, (2) the desire of the priests to do missionary work among the Indians, (3) the wish to gain more territory for France. Much of the interior of what is now the United States was first explored by Frenchmen for one or another of these three reasons.

Some of the early exploring trips were so interesting that we almost wish we could take them to-day. Let us follow on such a journey two great French explorers, Louis Joliet (zhō-lyā′), a fur trader, and Jacques Marquette (zhăk mar-kĕt′), a Catho-

lic priest and missionary to the Indians. One explorer had a keen eye for furry animals. The other was more interested in the Indians, to whom he wished to carry the Gospel. Both had one object in common, to find in the West a great river and to learn whether it flowed into the Pacific or the Gulf of Mexico. The Indians often spoke of this mighty inland stream, but no one had identified it with the river which De Soto discovered (p. 26). The Frenchmen started (May, 1673) from the Strait of Mackinac (măk'ĭ-nô), which is the northeastern outlet of Lake Michigan. They began their trip of 2500 miles in two birch canoes manned by five men. While on Lake Michigan, they kept close to the shore, drew up their canoes on land at night, and took their evening and morning meals of smoked venison, Indian corn, and such game and fish as they secured. They entered Green Bay, Wisconsin, and paddled up Fox River, where they saw tens of thousands of ducks and other birds eating the wild rice that lined its banks. The travelers dragged their canoes a little more than a mile over the



ROUTE OF MARQUETTE AND JOLIET

portage from the Fox to the Wisconsin River and passed down it to the Mississippi.

Joliet and Marquette stopped for an interesting visit to a tribe of Illinois Indians. In giving compliments, the chief was not surpassed by the French. He told his guests that their presence made the river more calm, the sky more serene, and the earth more beautiful. He invited them to a feast and offered them corn-meal porridge, fish, and roast dog. When they declined the dog, they were given a roast from a fat buffalo. The chief gave them a calumet, or peace pipe, as a passport for the rest of their journey.

FATHER MARQUETTE IN HIS BIRCH CANOE

As the Frenchmen went down the Mississippi, they wondered at the mouths of two great streams, the Missouri and the Ohio. "I never saw anything more terrific," said Marquette, when his canoe spun around like a leaf in a whirlpool where the Missouri poured its rushing waters into the Mississippi. The travelers continued their voyage to the mouth of the Arkansas (är'kan-sô) River, not far from where De Soto had crossed the Mississippi more than 125 years before. They felt that they had gone far enough to be sure that the Mississippi flowed into the Gulf of Mexico and not into the Pacific. They therefore turned and paddled their canoes upstream to the mouth of the Illinois

River, which they ascended, and passed by a portage to the Chicago (shĭ-kô′gō) River and along it to Lake Michigan. In September they reached Green Bay. Marquette stopped there, at an Indian mission, but Joliet kept on to Quebec to report their discovery.

This journey, which rediscovered the Mississippi, was taken entirely in canoes except where portages were crossed.

Foretelling America's development.—Some persons think that they could easily have foretold America's development if they had known about its waterways, climate, soil, and materials for manufacture. They say that America could not have helped becoming the greatest farming and manufacturing country in the world. Those who think they could have told these things in advance of colonization are mistaken. They would have needed to know one other fact before they could have prophesied with certainty. The Indians had been here for thousands of years, with all these natural resources, but America had not led the world in anything. China has vast coal fields, and Brazil has mines of high-grade iron ore, but they are undeveloped. No one could have foretold the future development of America without knowing what kind of men would come to colonize it.

The Indians.—The men who had lived in North America for ages without developing it were copper-colored. They probably came to America from Asia, across Bering Strait. The people now living on both sides of this strait belong to the same race. No one knows how many thousands of years the Indians had lived in America before the white men came. The red men north of Mexico did not develop so much as the Aztecs and the Incas to the south.

The Indians east of the Rocky Mountains were usually erect, fine looking, and able to stand fatigue. Sometimes they would keep on the trail of a deer until the animal was exhausted. Like boys to-day, they quickly tired when they had regular work, such as planting and weeding corn and bringing wood and water. Such tasks they left to the women.

The Indians throughout the country lived in a variety of dwellings. The Iroquois (ĭr-o-kwoi′), in central New York, the tribes which changed the course of American history most, had long frame dwellings, covered with bark. Many other tribes lived in wigwams. To make a wigwam, Indians would mark on the ground a circle ten feet or more in diameter, and then set

WIGWAMS OF SKIN, LIKE THOSE MADE 500 YEARS AGO

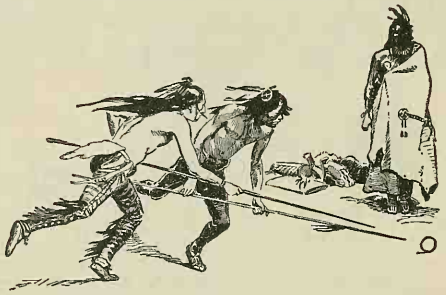
up some poles, placing the large ends on the circle and leaning the tops together. They covered this cone-shaped frame with skins or bark. The smoke from the fire went up through an opening in the top of the wigwam.

For their food the Iroquois and other eastern Indians often depended as much on cornfields and gardens as on hunting. If the Indians had invited us to eat with them, the food would have varied with the tribe, the part of the country, and the season. They might have given us a dish new to Europeans, like succotash, which is a mixture of green corn and beans

They might have brought from their gardens pumpkins and beans and offered us a piece of roasted rabbit or venison, along with wild strawberries, blackberrries, blueberries, or cherries. They might have given us only a handful of parched corn, which was often all the Indians took with them on their journeys. Sometimes they would have had nothing, and we might have heard a Hiawatha praying when the deep snow was on the ground:

"Give me food for Minnehaha,
For my dying Minnehaha."

Why they interest the young.—The Indian is important because his manner of life has not ceased to interest and influence young people. They would like to be as independent as he was, to build their own houses, hunt for their own food, travel in the mysterious forest, listen to the owls at midnight, watch the stars and the moon, and be on the lookout for migrating birds.



AN INDIAN GAME

A small hoop is rolled along, and the contestants try to throw a spear through it. From a painting by Charles Bodmer, made from life in 1833.

The example of the Indian keeps alive the interest in things out of doors. Boys and girls would like to learn the habits of every wild creature of the fields and woods, to know their calls, and to imitate them as well as the Indians did. When some one takes boys into the forest, blindfolds them, and turns them around seven and one-half times, they are proud if they can tell the points of the compass as well as the Indian. They try to notice every disturbed leaf, broken twig or spider's web, or anything else that would show the passage of man or animal. They like to watch tracks in the snow, learn what animal made them, be sure in which direction he was going, and how long

ago he passed. Every youth would love outdoor life more if he had some of this training which was given to Indian boys. A knowledge of the early Indians keeps alive this desire for God's great outdoors. The Indian was brother to the wind and rain, the frost and snow, the forests and all the animals that thronged them.

Why the Indian did not develop America.—In the first place, the Indian was ignorant, and no great teacher had come to him. He had few tools, and most of these were of wood or stone. We could scarcely build a hen coop to-day with such tools. The white man's axe and knife seemed almost a miracle to the Indian. He had not learned how to use iron for making tools.

INDIAN PICTURE WRITING: CAN YOU TELL WHAT EACH REPRESENTS?

The Indians had no books nor any alphabet, but they did make rude pictures to represent ideas—the first stage of writing. These five are, in the order given: an eclipse of the sun; starvation (ribs showing); plenty of buffalo meat (note the buffalo head above the pieces hung up to dry); smallpox or measles; cold winter (so cold that the crows froze in the air and fell to the earth). Drawings from the Fourth Annual Report of the U. S. Bureau of Ethnology.

He had no books to bring him knowledge of what other people had learned and done.

In the second place, the Indian's progress was made still more slow because he strove to remember every wrong done him or his tribe, and desired to fight for vengeance. He also loved war because he thought it was necessary to make men courageous and brave. War with different tribes naturally followed this belief. Love of war made him cruel. So many of the bravest and most courageous fell in battle that the race could not be expected to improve as much as if the fittest had survived. The Indian fought so much that he thought the labor of tilling the soil unfit for a brave man. For this reason there were probably not more than four or five hundred thousand Indians in

the present bounds of the United States when Columbus discovered America, or fewer people than live to-day in the single city of Buffalo.

Moral training and religion of the Indians.—The Indian child was early taught to be generous and to give away things that he prized. An educated Sioux (sōō) Indian wrote: "As a child, I understood how to give; I have forgotten that grace since I became civilized." He dedicated one of his books to his white wife " in love of her most Indian-like virtues." Indian children were told stories of the disadvantage of selfishness, how the deer and the beaver could tell from afar when the selfish man started to hunt them, how a dog would not follow a mean master, how a tribe once drove a selfish man to live with the wolves, and how they drove him back. The Indian was reared not to live unto himself but to realize the duty that he owed to his tribe and clan. The children were taught to keep their word. The Indian wondered how white men could break their treaties and seize the land which they had promised to leave for homes and hunting grounds for the red man.

INDIAN DANCING THE BUFFALO DANCE

To bring good luck in hunting buffalo. From a painting by Charles Bodmer, made from life in 1833.

The Indian did not grasp the idea of one God but believed that different spirit forces existed in everything, from the wind and the snow to the sun and the moon. He was like the Greek in giving " to every mountain, tree, and spring its spirit, nymph, or divinity." The spirits of the animals and birds of the forest were brothers to the Indian. His need might compel him to kill them for food or clothing, but he often stood before the dead

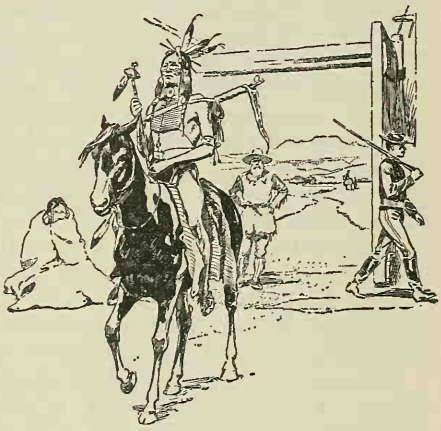
body of the animal and uttered a prayer or decorated its head with feathers out of respect for the spirit.

Some tribes gave the name " manito " to spirits, which were thought to be more powerful than man. The child was taught that nothing that was wrong could be concealed from them, that the criminal could not escape even if he had the cunning of the fox or the wings of the eagle. An educated Indian who was brought up among the primitive red men says that they believed in the immortality of the soul, which returns to the Great Mystery who gave it, but that the idea of a " happy hunting ground " is probably modern and invented by the white man.

How an Indian showed some of the virtues of the race.— Some remember only the faults of the Indian. It may do us more good to know some of his virtues.

In the last quarter of the last century there was an Indian called Crow Dog, living with his tribe of Sioux Indians in Dakota. With the help of soldiers of the United States, an Indian named Spotted Tail was chosen chief of that tribe against the will of many braves. Crow Dog made a tribal vow to kill Spotted Tail if he ever proved unworthy of his office. When he disgraced the tribe, Crow Dog killed him (1881) and made compensation to the slain man's family, according to tribal custom. Crow Dog and his friends did not regard his act as murder but as the execution of a just sentence of death. He was, however, tried by a South Dakota court and sentenced to death. A few days before he was to be hanged, the jailer permitted him to ride with a deputy sheriff two hundred miles to see his wife and children. When they reached the end of their journey, the officer allowed Crow Dog to remain all night at his home, on his promise to report for the return journey the next morning. When the Indian did not come, the officer went to his home and found that he had left hours before. He was at that minute far out on the prairie with no officer between him and Canada. He knew that the white men had repeatedly broken their promises to the Indian. Should he break his promise?

One thing was clear to that simple Indian, that he could not escape from the Manito, who dwelt in Canada as well as in Dakota. The next day the alarmed officer had this telegram from the jailer: "Crow Dog has just reported here." This act impressed white people so much that they took his case to the Supreme Court of the United States, which freed him on the ground that he was not a citizen of the United States and that it was right to allow Indian tribal custom to decide in a case of this kind.



CROW DOG RETURNING TO PRISON

Crow Dog lived to be seventy-five years old, respected and trusted by all who knew him. He was only one of an untold number of Indians whose feeling of tribal loyalty was as strong as the white man's patriotism, whose respect for truth and honor did not flinch in the presence of death, and whose belief in the omnipresence of the Manito could not be shaken.

Summary of Points of Emphasis for Review.—(1) The effect of climate upon history, (2) difference in the climate of North America and Europe in the same latitude, (3) the fertility of the soil, (4) why the forests were necessary in the development of our country, (5) the abundance of materials for manufacture in the United States, (6) why it is better that the Atlantic rather than the Pacific coast faced Europe, (7) interior waterways, (8) how the lakes and streams helped Marquette and Joliet in their exploration of the interior, (9) the food and dwellings of the Indians, (10) why Indians interest the young, (11) why they did not develop America, (12) effect of war on the Indian race, (13) moral training, religion, and the good qualities of the Indian.

Activities.—Make a list of the natural resources and advantages which helped to make the United States the great nation it is to-day.

Show by plasticene or wooden models or by drawings how the settlers made use of the forests.

Construct an Indian village on the sand table.

Read *Hiawatha* by Longfellow. Select parts that show the Indian's love for out of doors.

Ask Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, or Camp Fire Girls to tell what their organizations have learned from the Indians.

Imagine yourself to be an Indian and give a three-minute talk on "When the White Man Came to Our Land." Read the last stanza of "The White Man's Foot" in *Hiawatha* as an illustration.

Solve this problem: Why did the Indian fail to develop America?

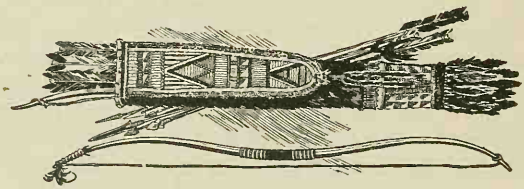
Trace carefully on a map the route taken by Marquette and Joliet. (The teacher should read to the class Father Marquette's account of the discovery of the Mississippi in Hart, *American History Told by Contemporaries*, I., 136–140, or a member of the class should tell the story as one of the expedition might have given it.)

If you had been on the jury why would you or why would you not have found Crow Dog guilty of murder?

Write one hundred words on either of the following subjects: (a) Did the effect of war on Indian races prove that it is necessary for progress? (b) Valuable lessons that we can learn from the Indians.

References for Teachers.—Huntington, *The Red Man's Continent* (Chron. of Am.); Farrand, *Basis of Am. Hist.;* Semple, *Am. Hist. and its Geographic Conditions*, 19–35; Parkman, *La Salle and the Discovery of the Great West*, Chap. V.; Hodge, *Handbook of American Indians* (U. S. Bureau of Ethnology); Shaler, *Nature and Man in America*, 147–188; Thwaites, *The Colonies*, 3–19.

For Pupils.—Foote and Skinner, *Explorers and Founders of America*, 126–135; Eastman, *Indian Boyhood; The Soul of the Indian;* Powers, *Stories the Iroquois Tell Their Children;* Hart, *Colonial Children*, 91–130; Baldwin, *The Discovery of the Old Northwest;* Brooks, *Story of the American Indian;* McMurry, *Pioneers of the Mississippi Valley*, 1–15.



Indian Bow and Arrows

CHAPTER IV

THE FIRST PERMANENT ENGLISH COLONY

Motives for colonization.—We have now come to the beginning of a great period of English colonization, which resulted in changing the world's history. Why did Englishmen colonize America? The principal reasons were (1) desire for wealth and foreign trade, (2) love of country, the wish to extend England's influence, (3) a longing for freedom to worship God in any chosen way and to have more voice in government, and (4) the desire of many people to better their means of making a living.

The large amount of gold and silver that came from the New World during the sixteenth century raised prices, but wages did not rise so fast as prices. Some land owners in England turned from farming to sheep raising, and this threw many laborers out of work. The laws of the time were very severe. Men were hanged for stealing anything worth a shilling and were imprisoned for falling in debt. In the century which saw the first permanent English colonies founded in America (seventeenth century), there were in England three hundred crimes punishable with death. Humane Englishmen wanted to give the laborer a better chance in life, and they thought it would be better to send to America the unemployed and those who had committed some trifling offense against the laws.

Shakespeare, who was living when the great colonizing movement began, had called England an "other Eden"—a "precious stone set in the silver sea," and had spoken of the English people as "this happy breed of men." This was true especially from the point of view of the upper and middle classes. They had profited more than the laborer and they were growing wealthier.

Colonizing companies.—Poor men could neither hire ships with which to cross the ocean nor buy the food and tools

necessary before a living could be earned in America. Raleigh (p. 32) had found the task of founding a colony too great for one man, even with great wealth. Men then determined to form a company and sell shares in it, just as they do to-day when an undertaking, such as building a railroad or a factory, is too great for one individual.

More than a thousand Englishmen subscribed for stock in two companies, called the London Company and the Plymouth Company, each of which was organized to plant a colony in America. King James I gave (1606) these companies the right to colonize parts of Virginia, which was the name then given to the land extending from Nova Scotia to Cape Fear, North Carolina. The grant of the London Company was to be located in the southern part of this tract; that of the Plymouth Company, in the northern.

Spain claimed this territory, but James I asserted his right to colonize unoccupied lands, especially since Cabot had discovered them (p. 28). Spain protested and watched every movement of the English. The Plymouth Company failed in its attempt to found a colony on the Kennebec River (p. 36); and the name Virginia came to mean only the colony founded by the London Company.

The charter.—A "charter" means a written paper which grants and defines certain rights. By the charter of 1606 King James gave the London Company a block of land one hundred miles square, to be selected somewhere on the coast between the thirty-fourth and forty-first degrees of north latitude. By a new charter given in 1609, the king greatly enlarged the grant to include four hundred miles of coast and all the land "from sea to sea, west and northwest." This added right led Virginia afterward to claim the land extending west and northwest (from her frontage on the ocean), as far as the Mississippi River.

To James I the most interesting part of these charters was the clause giving him one fifth of all the gold and silver found

in Virginia. He did not foresee that Virginia would never send him enough to buy food for one of his dogs. Two far more important sections provided (1) that the government of the colony was to be determined not by the colonists themselves, but by

LANDS GRANTED BY JAMES I IN 1606 AND 1609

a council residing in England, and (2) that all the colonists should enjoy the same liberties as those born and remaining in England. We shall find that the colonists later demanded the right to vote on taxation the same as if they were living in England. The dispute over that charter right was one of the causes of the Revolution.

The voyage to Virginia.—The London Company sent 105 colonists in three small vessels to Virginia. These three vessels together could carry a load of only 160 tons. There was not enough space for the passengers, even if there had been no cargo. The provisions were not suited to maintain health. Scurvy resulted from a diet of salted meat without fruits or vegetables. This and fever weakened many so that they were in no condition to work when they landed.

To add to the discomfort and suffering, the vessels sailed twice as far as was necessary. They went first to the Canary Islands, then to the West Indies, whence they sailed north to Virginia. They chose this route because the early voyagers had gone this way.

The first settlers at Jamestown.—The colonists had been ordered to make their settlement a hundred miles from the open sea, so as to be in less danger from Spanish attack. After sailing about thirty miles up the James River, the ships came to a neck of land almost surrounded by water. This place, named Jamestown in honor of the king, was chosen because it seemed easy to fortify. It was also a good landing place, since the water was so deep that the ships could be tied to the trees. The first permanent English colony in America was begun here, in May, 1607. This has been called one of the three most important dates in American history.

The land with its fresh green leaves and flowers at first seemed a paradise. The colonists heard the mocking bird sing and saw rabbits, squirrels, blackbirds with red wings, the wild turkeys' nests filled with eggs, and wild strawberries.

Half of the first settlers were gentlemen. The English definition of a gentleman was "a man who did not work with his hands or engage in trade." The conditions of life in the New World compelled the early settlers to work hard with hands and brain. There were four carpenters, a blacksmith, two bricklayers, a barber, a tailor, a drummer, a surgeon, and twelve so-called laborers, who were not used to hard work. There were no

skilled farmers although they were the most needed. Four boys came, one of whom was soon killed by the Indians.

The struggle.—The year before they sailed for Jamestown, the gentlemen might have read a play in which one of the actors said that gold was more plentiful in Virginia than copper in England, and that the dripping pans there were pure gold. A load of worthless yellow stuff, mistaken for gold, was actually shipped to England. The disappointment was keen when gold could not be found, and the colonists lost the hope of getting rich quickly without hard work.

The settlers began to quarrel with each other. They did not know what to raise for food and they were starving before the end of summer. While hunting in the forest for food, many were wounded or killed by Indians. Millions of mosquitoes hatched in the swampy places around Jamestown and gave the settlers malarial fever. The colonists drank impure water which caused disease. The journal of one of them in the summer of 1607 reads like this: "The sixth of August there died John Asbie of the bloody flux. The ninth day died George Flower of the swelling. The tenth day died William Bruster of a wound given by the savages." Sickness and starvation killed more than half of the colonists within six months.

Activities of Captain John Smith.—The hero and preserver of the Jamestown colony during its first two years was Captain John Smith (1579–1631). Historians have accused him of telling false stories about his adventures, such as killing three Turks in single combat, but his deeds were important enough to give him high rank in the early history of Virginia.

Smith was only twenty-eight when he became president of the starving Jamestown settlement. The first supply ship had then returned with other colonists, one fourth of whom were gentlemen, accompanied by a perfumer. Smith compelled the able-bodied men, gentlemen, perfumer, and all, to do hard work. One of the greatest things that he did for the settlement was to get corn from the Indians and make the colonists plant it for

food. Corn was unknown to Europe. It is hard to imagine what the United States would be without the corn crop to-day. Smith succeeded in trading with the Indians and in getting food from them before the new crop was ripe.

He went on voyages of exploration up Virginia rivers and into Chesapeake Bay. He skirted the shore around Cape Charles and learned as much as he could about the country. The maps of Virginia which he drew have been praised by modern surveyors. He stands first among the early colonists of Virginia for energy, daring, and intense interest in whatever he did, no matter whether it was spearing a sting ray with his sword, or learning the habits of the Indians, or making a survey of the rivers and bays, or finding out about the natural resources of Virginia.

STATUE OF SMITH

Erected on the site of Jamestown, 1907, at the time of the Tercentennial Exposition.

After a two years' stay in the colony, he was so severely injured by an explosion of gunpowder that he was forced to return to England (1609). He made later voyages of discovery along the New England coast, drew maps of it, and received the title of Admiral of New England. He was a vigorous writer and he has left a vivid account of his experiences.

Pocahontas.—Captain Smith made Pocahontas, the daughter of the Indian chief Powhatan′, one of the best-known heroines in American history. Smith tells us that on one of his expeditions he was taken prisoner by the Indians and that when Powhatan ordered them to kill him, the chief's young daughter Pocahontas threw herself on his head to protect it from the death blow. She then prevailed on her father to spare him.

Some historians do not believe this story, but it is certain that this attractive brown-eyed Indian maiden was no myth

and that she helped to save the colony. She came through the woods one dark night to warn of Indian treachery and she repeatedly brought corn to Jamestown. A few years after Smith's departure, John Rolfe, a fine young English gentleman, fell in love with Pocahontas. The marriage service of the Church of England was used at their wedding in the Jamestown church (1614). Her uncle gave the bride in marriage and her two brothers took the place of groomsmen. Some of the best families of Virginia and the wife of one of the presidents of the United States are proud to trace their descent from her. Pocahontas has caused Americans to this day to feel more kindly toward the Indian race. After she married Rolfe, there was peace with the Indians, which lasted beyond her short life.

POCAHONTAS SAVES CAPTAIN SMITH'S LIFE

Picture in Smith's *General History of Virginia*, 1624. The scene is the interior of Powhatan's long house, built in Iroquois style (p. 42).

What enabled the Jamestown colony to survive.—The year after John Smith's departure (1610), the few wretched survivors decided to abandon the settlement, and they actually sailed for England. Before they reached the open ocean, they were met by another relief ship and turned back. By the end of the first thirteen years of the existence of the colony, nearly three out of every four of the 3000 immigrants to Virginia had died.

Few battles which cost no more human life have had as great results. The men who died at Jamestown lost their lives in helping to give us a title to all our land from the Atlantic to the Pacific.

Two of the reasons for the survival of the Jamestown colony deserve special mention. (1) The first was the abandonment of the practice of putting into a common store all the produce of the fields. In the beginning the man who loafed got as much as he who worked hard. When Sir Thomas Dale was governor of the colony, this method was changed by giving each man three acres to cultivate for his own use. One man then raised as much corn as ten had produced. (2) John Rolfe, who later married Pocahontas, began to experiment with raising tobacco in his garden. He discovered Virginia's gold mine in this plant, for the tobacco crop soon brought her prosperity.

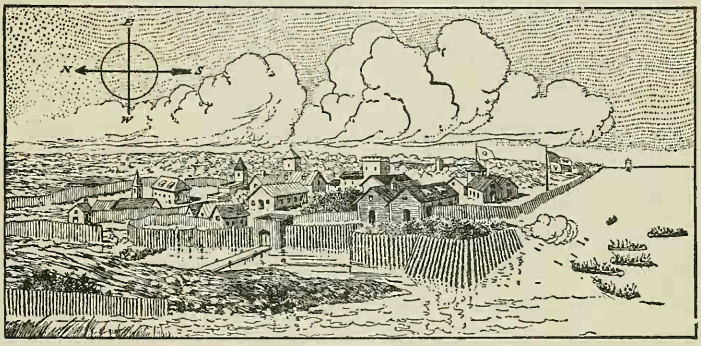
Three remarkable events in 1619.—The right of the colonists to have all that they raised on their own land kept them from starving, but neither this right nor the growing of tobacco would have made the colony permanent. The settlers needed homes and families to furnish the strongest reason for working hard and remaining in the new land. No women came with the first colonists and only a few ventured over in the relief ships.

I. In 1619 the London Company sent over ninety carefully selected young women. The understanding was that a colonist might marry one after gaining her consent if he would pay the company 120 pounds of tobacco for her passage. The greatest single influence in American history, that of the home, made itself felt. The colony ceased to be a group of adventurers and became a settlement of home makers.

II. John Rolfe wrote in his journal in 1619: "About the last of August came in a Dutch man-of-war that sold us twenty negroes." That event influenced the development of the South in a way that led to our Civil War.

III. The London Company allowed each of the ten chief settlements, or "burgs," as they were called, to elect two

representatives, or "burgesses" (bûr'jĕs-ĕz), to advise with the governor of the colony and with his council, who were appointed in England. This House of Burgesses, which met at Jamestown in 1619, was the first representative body elected by the people on American soil. In order to show their dignity during their meeting, the burgesses kept their hats on after the fashion of the English House of Commons.



JAMESTOWN ABOUT 1620

From an old engraving printed in a Dutch book (1707). Jamestown, though largely destroyed in Bacon's Rebellion (1676), was the capital of Virginia till 1698, when Williamsburg became the capital. In 1893 a Virginian historical society purchased the old site, now an island, which for nearly 200 years had been uninhabited, and proceeded to excavate, finding many ruins and relics. This society rebuilt the brick church in 1907. In the same year President Roosevelt opened here the Tercentennial Exposition a military, naval, marine, and historic exhibition, to commemorate the first permanent settlement of English-speaking people in America.

The London Company loses its charter; royal governors.— Fifteen years after Virginia was founded, the Indians massacred one third of the colonists (1622). King James said that the London Company did not look after the welfare of the settlement and that he would take it under his own protection. He took away the company's charter (1624), and no stockholder received anything for the money that he had invested in the enterprise.

This change made Virginia a royal colony, and its governors were henceforth appointed by the king instead of by the London Company. The most famous of the royal governors was Sir William Berkeley (bûrk'lĭ), who ruled for nearly forty years.

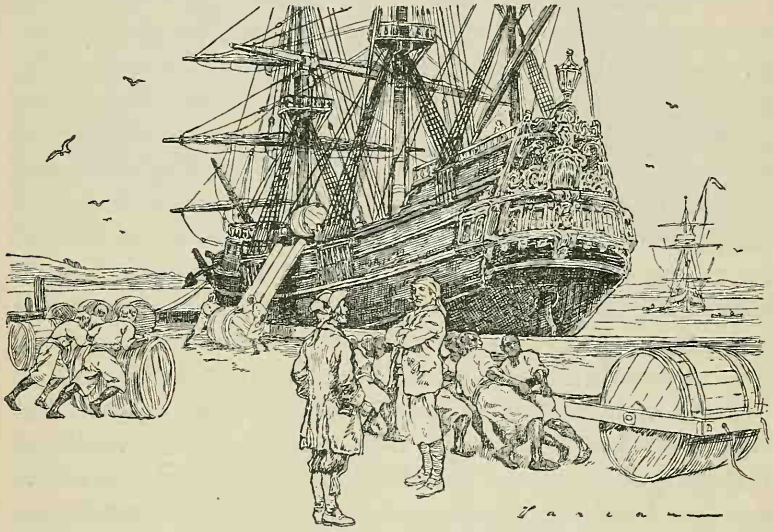
He did not want the people to have much voice in the government and he was glad that there was no printing press in Virginia. The colony grew and the settlements extended farther inland. The Indians resolved to save the rest of their lands and began another massacre. This time it was Berkeley, the king's agent, who did not protect the people. Nathaniel Bacon, a young patriot, raised a force against the governor's orders and checked the Indians (1676). When Berkeley objected to this "rebellion," Bacon drove him out of Jamestown, but died in the hour of victory. Berkeley then hanged all the chief patriots, who are worthy to rank with the heroes of the Revolution.

How tobacco raising affected Virginia.—In spite of much bad government, tobacco brought prosperity to the settlers. Tobacco was the one commodity for which there was a constant market. It was somewhat like Aladdin's lamp because it would bring from England almost anything that was desired, from a hoe to a watch or a silk dress. It would pay for the salary of a clergyman and the services of a doctor. John Smith was asked in England why the colonists did not raise wheat instead of tobacco, which could feed nobody. He replied: "A man can make as much in one day in growing tobacco as in six from raising wheat."

The great rivers that penetrated into Virginia not far from each other made it possible for tobacco plantations to extend inland. Ships sailed up the rivers, loaded the tobacco at the different plantations along their banks, and brought back supplies from England. Tobacco raising unfortunately soon wore out the soil and made it necessary to cultivate new ground, but there was for a long time a sufficient supply of land in Virginia.

Large numbers of servants.—Tobacco made Virginia a colony of large plantations, which needed many laborers. The majority of these were poor white people brought from England as servants. They sold their service to a planter, often for a period of seven years, to pay their passage to America. During that time they were almost as much under his control as if they had

been slaves. He could whip them if they disobeyed or even displeased him. Some of these servants were sent to Virginia by judges who did not want to hang them for slight offenses. Children were especially liked as servants because they could be made to serve for a long time, the girls until eighteen and the



LOADING A TOBACCO SHIP IN VIRGINIA

The tobacco was packed in great casks, which were rolled all the way from the tobacco sheds to the wharf. Each plantation, as a rule, had its own wharf.

boys until twenty-one. Their time of service was often extended on one excuse or another. In one year (1627) fourteen hundred children were brought to Virginia. Many were kidnaped and taken on board a vessel as it sailed. One kidnaper boasted (1671) that he had caught on the streets of London and shipped across the ocean an average of 500 boys and girls a year for twelve years.

Among the servant class were mechanics, such as carpenters, cabinet makers, blacksmiths, and shoemakers. The term of service for mechanics was usually shorter than for unskilled laborers. All classes of male laborers looked forward to getting

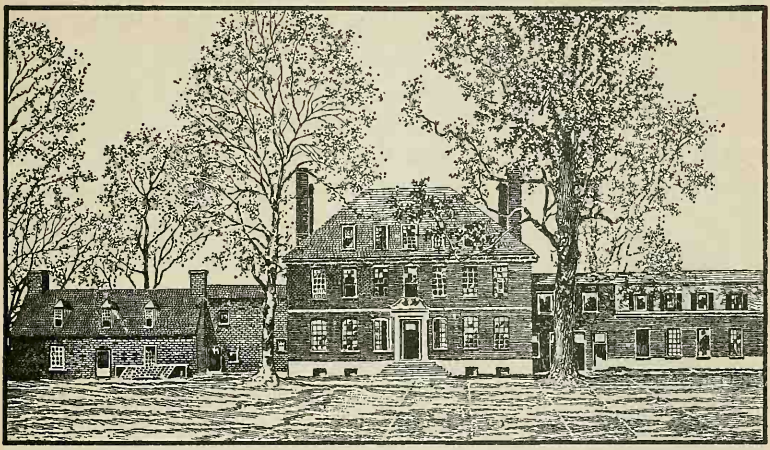
land of their own and becoming independent when their term of service ended.

The white servants outnumbered the negro slaves during the seventeenth century, but the number of negroes began to increase rapidly toward the end of that century.

The church and the school.—The official church of the Virginia colony was the Church of England, or Episcopal Church. All the colonists were required to attend its services under penalty of a fine. One governor in the early days at Jamestown ordered an officer to search every house and force all but the sick to go to church. The clergy supported the king's rule, and favored the union of church and state. All were taxed to support the official church, even if they did not like the form of its service or its doctrine. Those who would not conform had to leave the colony. Members of the congregation were seated according to their rank. A churchwarden removed a woman from an aristocratic pew because it was " above her degree."

There were no schools supported at public expense, but benevolent persons sometimes tried to maintain private schools that charged no tuition. Even if the plantations had been nearer together, a common school system could not have been a success because there were four distinct classes of people in Virginia: (1) large planters, (2) small planters, (3) white servants, (4) negroes The wealthy planters preferred that their children should be educated by themselves, and they were often sent to school in England. George Washington's brothers were educated there. Good teachers were also often brought from England to Virginia.

Life on the plantation.—There were few towns in Virginia. The larger tobacco plantations were necessarily far apart, and each had enough people living on it to make a small town. The stories of life on a plantation would be quite different if told by the master, the white servant, and the negro slave. The master might have an advertiser write an attractive account of how servants lived, how they rested in summer three hours in



WESTOVER, A VIRGINIA MANSION, BUILT ABOUT 1650

This estate was purchased by the father of William Byrd, a prominent Virginia planter, and was the home of the family for several generations. The house is of red brick.

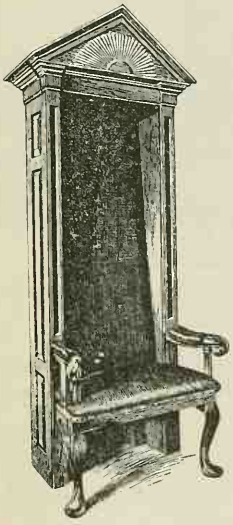
the heat of the day, and how in winter they did little more than cut firewood and hunt deer, swans, wild geese, and turkeys. The servant, on the other hand, might complain that after he was tired from working all day in the tobacco field, he had to pound Indian corn, first for his master, and then for himself. A woman servant says:

"Now at the hoe
I daily work and barefoot go,
In weeding corn or feeding swine
I spend my melancholy time."

An increasing number of negro slaves worked on the plantations, hoeing the tobacco and corn, and taking care of the animals. The slaves also learned the household arts, such as cooking, cleaning, spinning, and weaving. Later, they took over this work from the white servants. Skilled negroes learned from them how to make nails and the coarser kinds of furniture, and how to build shelters for animals and cabins for other slaves.

The masters and mistresses of these plantations lived so far away from those of their own rank that they welcomed guests.

They liked horse racing, hunting, dancing, and visiting other plantations. Attendance at church, weddings, and funerals was a welcome kind of diversion. There was a feast with plenty of wine at funerals, and volleys were so often fired that some men asked in their wills that gun firing should be omitted. Much of the master's time was taken in managing his plantation, which was as complex as many modern factories. Its crops, animals, buildings, varied supplies, such as food, tools of all kinds, and clothing, required constant attention. The mistress had to plan for her guests, servants, supplies, and various household duties as carefully as a modern manager does for his hotel.



Speaker's Chair, House of Burgesses

Presented by Queen Anne in 1700.

Virginia's achievement.—The first successful English colony in America stands in the same relation to succeeding colonies as Columbus to the sailors that followed him. Our whole nation looks back to Virginia as the colony that showed the way to all the other settlements that developed into the United States.

Virginia was the first to lay the foundation of our modern representative government. Her House of Burgesses was elected by vote of the people, the year before the second successful English colony was founded at Plymouth.

Virginia's greatest sons, such as George Washington and Thomas Jefferson, learned from her early traditions such respect for the rights of the people as to fight for them on battle fields and in halls of government. The eloquence of her Patrick Henry led men of the North and the South to load their muskets for the Revolution. The sons of Virginia rank with the foremost men of other colonies in giving us our present Constitution. John Marshall, another Virginian, interpreted that Constitution in

his decisions and aided in creating this strong, modern, united nation. All these sons of our first permanent colony drew their inspiration from the democratic spirit shown in electing the first assembly in America to represent the people in making laws for them.

Summary of Points of Emphasis for Review.—(1) England's reasons for colonization, (2) why the poorer classes were dissatisfied in England, (3) two colonizing companies, (4) charter for colonizing Virginia, (5) suffering of the colonists on the voyage to Virginia, (6) kind of men who settled Jamestown, (7) struggle of the colony, (8) how John Smith helped the Jamestown colony, (9) why the colony survived, (10) why the year 1619 should be remembered, (11) Virginia loses her charter and becomes a royal colony, (12) effect of tobacco raising upon Virginia, (13) how laborers were obtained, (14) church and school, (15) life on a plantation, (16) Virginia's achievement.

Activities.—The teacher should read to the class selections from *Value of Virginia as a Colony* (published in 1650) in James, *Readings in American History*, 40–44. The class should write five reasons why colonization of Virginia by England was desirable.

Imagine yourself to be the perfumer (p. 53). Write a letter to a friend, telling what you think of Jamestown as a place of residence.

Read or ask your teacher to read to you *Conditions of the Jamestown Colony* (1607), an extract from the diary of one of the settlers, in James, *Readings in American History*, 38, 39.

Give an account of life on a Virginia plantation from the point of view of (a) the master, (b) a servant boy or girl, and (c) a slave.

Write one hundred words on (a) The Aladdin's Lamp of Virginia or (b) Government in the Virginia Colony.

References for Teachers.—Greene, *Foundations of American Nationality*, 45–85; Channing, *History of the United States*, I., 148–236; Johnston, *Pioneers of the Old South* (Chron. of Am.), 1–115, 161–190; Bolton and Marshall, *Colonization of North America;* Tyler, *England in America*, 3–117; Thwaites, *The Colonies*, 69–81; Fiske, *Old Virginia and Her Neighbors*, I., 1–254, II., 45–107; Higginson, *Book of American Explorers*, 231–265; Egerton, *Origin and Growth of English Colonies in America*, 64–83; Earle, *Home Life in Colonial Days* (see Index); Goodwin, *The Colonial Cavalier;* Johnston, *To Have and To Hold* and *Prisoners of Hope* (fiction).

For Pupils.—Earle, *Child Life in Colonial Days*, 64–66, 95, 232, 233, 314; Perry and Price, *American History*, I., 123–134; Otis, *Richard of Jamestown;* Foote and Skinner, *Explorers and Founders*, 113–125; Southworth, *Builders of Our Country*, I., 73–88, 201–207; MacElroy, *Work and Play in Colonial Days;* Hart, *Colonial Children*, 149–152; Guerber, *Story of the Thirteen Colonies;* Gordy, *American Leaders and Heroes*, 42–62.

CHAPTER V

THE COMING OF THE PILGRIMS

The Pilgrims.—The Reformation led to the formation of many differing groups of Protestants. Among such were those known in American history as the Pilgrims. The Pilgrim movement began in the northern part of Nottinghamshire, England, near Sherwood Forest, the resort of Robin Hood and his merry archers. Some tenant farmers and laborers after listening to the preaching of a young graduate of Cambridge (kām′brĭj) University, England, thought that it was their duty to separate from the Church of England. They tried to worship by themselves, but they "were hunted and persecuted on every side." They determined to leave their homes and fair country and go to Holland, "where they heard there was freedom of religion for all men." They were persecuted, and some of them imprisoned, when they tried to leave England, but after several attempts they reached Am′sterdam (1608). They lived in that city about a year, but in order to escape the quarrels among the English churches there, they moved to Leyden (lī′den).

These Sep′aratists from the Church of England have been called Pilgrims because of their various pilgrimages in search of a place where they could worship God as they chose. Before starting on another pilgrimage, they remained in Leyden as a distinct congregation for eleven years (1609–1620).

Leaders of the Pilgrims.—They had three remarkable leaders. William Brewster, the postmaster in the Nottinghamshire town of Scrooby, was their elder or deacon. He "taught twice every Sabbath when the church had no other minister." He allowed the Pilgrims to worship in his house at Scrooby, assisted the weak to get to Holland, and later proved a Good Samaritan among the sick in America.

The pastor of the Pilgrims was John Robinson, a graduate of Cambridge University, who was well fitted to train the Pilgrims for the great work before them. He taught them to be of service to each other and to live "together in peace, love, and holiness." He bequeathed to those of later time what is perhaps the original of the motto: "Each for all and all for each." He instilled such courage into the Pilgrims that all could say with him: "It is not with us as with other men whom small things can discourage." Recent Dutch and English students of the life of the Pilgrims in Holland agree that they succeeded so well "because they believed in God and in John Robinson and in one another."

William Bradford (1588?–1657) was a boy when he went to Holland. He later served for thirty-one years as governor of the Pilgrim colony in America. His common sense, kindness, and ability to manage men and to direct the business of the colony enabled it to survive. He wrote the *History of Plymouth Plantation*, which is one of the earliest and best of all contemporary histories of American colonies. He was so modest that it is difficult to realize from reading it how great he really was. In that respect he was the opposite of Captain John Smith, the historian of the Jamestown colony.

Pilgrimage to America.—Leyden, Holland, was a city of about 100,000, and the Pilgrims realized that if they remained in it their children would learn the Dutch language and ways and their congregation would cease to exist. Besides, it was very hard to earn a living there. The children had to go to work so young that they became "decrepit in their early youth." There was also fear that Spain would attack Holland. These were some of the reasons that caused a shipload of the Leyden congregation to start on their last and most famous pilgrimage.

The chief idea in all their pilgrimages was to secure religious liberty for themselves and a chance to develop in their own way. We should guard against thinking that they came to America to found a colony where anyone might worship as he chose. They feared that another church might drive them out as they

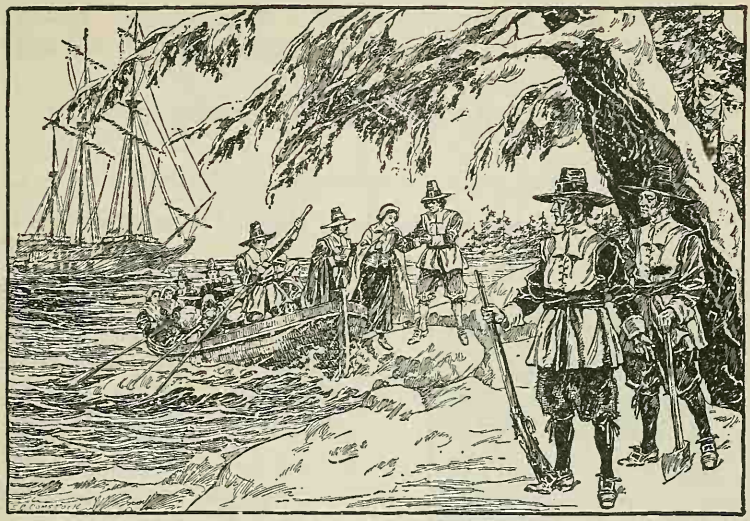
had been driven from England. They thought there would be land enough in America for any who disliked their religion to go elsewhere.

The Pilgrims left Holland for the long voyage in July, 1620. After many discouragements and delays and the abandonment of one vessel, one hundred and two men, women, and children sailed September 6 from Plymouth, England, in the *Mayflower*, one of the most famous ships in history. Thirty-five of her passengers, including Bradford and Brewster, the leaders of the pilgrimage, were members of the Leyden congregation. John Robinson, the pastor, remained behind with the majority of his flock, many of whom came later, but he died before he could see the famous colony which would have been impossible without his teaching. The rest of the *Mayflower's* passengers were from various parts of England. Captain Miles Standish, Priscilla Mullins, and John Alden, the three characters most interesting to us in Longfellow's poem, *The Courtship of Miles Standish*, all came direct from England.

The *Mayflower* reached Cape Cod on November 9. The Pilgrims had permission to settle in the grant of the London Company (p. 50) and they hoped to locate somewhere near the mouth of the Hudson. The captain accordingly turned the vessel to the south, but she fell among such "dangerous shoals and roaring breakers" that she was turned back to Provincetown harbor (map, p. 82). The twentieth century has seen an imposing shaft erected at Provincetown to mark the first landing place of the Pilgrims.

After exploring the coast in the vicinity, the Pilgrims selected for their permanent settlement the place now called Plymouth, where they landed, December 21, 1620. The rigors of a New England winter were upon them before they built a single house.

The struggle to survive.—In the dead of winter they built themselves homes with logs cut from the forest. Exposure to cold and wet and contagion from perhaps some form of influenza or tuberculosis brought sickness and death. Half of the

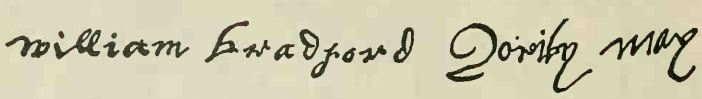


THE LANDING AT PLYMOUTH, DECEMBER 21, 1620

Pilgrims died during the first winter. At one time there were only seven well persons to nurse the sick. The care of the helpless by the able-bodied Good Samaritans was, says Bradford, who was one of the sick, "a rare example and worthy to be remembered." Elder Brewster and Captain Standish were two of the seven who remained well and nursed night and day. The death rate was highest among the women, but the girls were hardier than the boys. Fifteen out of twenty-one boys died, but only one out of eleven girls.

The Pilgrim Youth.—It is better to speak of the "Pilgrim Youth" than of the Pilgrim Fathers as the actual builders of the Plymouth colony. Youth ought to be especially interested in Plymouth, for it was mostly a young people's colony. Searchers among the Dutch archives while the Pilgrims lived in Holland have discovered a romance in which Dorothy May, an English girl of sixteen, living in Amsterdam, and William Bradford, then in his early twenties, figured. Accompanied by Dorothy's father, who gave his consent, they went to a Dutch magistrate

and declared their intention to marry. We may find to-day in the old archives of Amsterdam the signatures of William



SIGNATURES OF WILLIAM BRADFORD AND DOROTHY MAY

and Dorothy to the declaration that " they were betrothed and bound to each other with faith."

PILGRIM MAID

Statue designed for the tercentenary celebration (1920) in Plymouth.

Probably only eleven of the *Mayflower's* passengers were over forty, while the boys and girls were thirty-nine per cent of all. The greater proportion of deaths among the older people left the colony to be developed by the young. John Alden was twenty-one; Priscilla Mullins, probably younger; and Miles Standish, under forty. Bradford was only a little more than thirty when he became governor.

Planting corn.—The Pilgrims knew that they could not survive the next winter unless they raised corn. Fortunately, the fields had been cleared by a tribe of Indians that had died of the plague. It sounds almost like a fairy tale when we hear that a member of this tribe, who had escaped the plague by being kidnaped and taken across the ocean to be sold to Spaniards as a slave, had reached London, learned English there, recrossed the Atlantic, and now (March, 1621) astonished the Pilgrims by speaking to them in their own tongue. His name was Squanto, and

THE MAYFLOWER

The most famous ship in our colonial history. She brought from Plymouth, England, to Plymouth, Massachusetts, the founders of New England, who gave us our national holiday of Thanksgiving and left their impress on our later government.

it is doubtful if they could have raised corn without him, since the crop was unknown in England. He told them that the corn would come to nothing unless they put fish in the hills, for fertilizer. He said that enough fish would come up the town brook, and he showed how they could be caught. He then explained that they would need to watch the cornfield for some time to keep the wolves from digging up the fish and the crows from pulling up the corn.

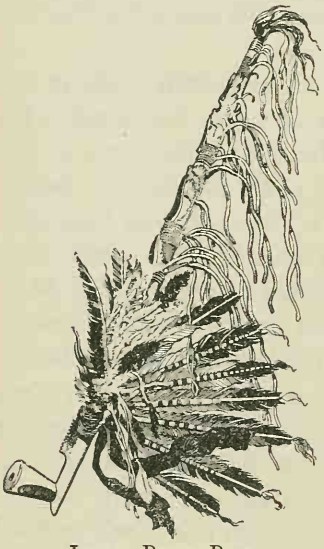
The Pilgrims planted about twenty acres of corn. It has been computed that 100,000 holes, deep enough to bury two or three fish, had to be dug with a hoe or some other hand implement, and that eighty thousand pounds of fish needed to be caught and carried to the field. To do this work, there were twenty-one men and six large boys, who had been sick in the winter. The task was so well done that a large crop of corn was raised, but the struggle to survive again became intense when in November (1621) the colonists were joined by thirty-five newcomers without food or tools. During the following two years, the Pilgrims were sometimes nearly starved.

The first peace pageant.—It was an important event in the history of Plymouth when a treaty of peace was made with Mas'sasoit, chief of the nearest tribe of Indians. One of the Pilgrims has left an account of their peace pageant. It begins on a clear warm day, April 1, 1621. Squanto and Sam'oset, the latter a Maine Indian who had learned some words from English fishermen, hurry to the Pilgrims and exclaim: "Massasoit and his tribe are coming!" The startled Pilgrims look to the south and see sixty Indians on a hill beyond the town brook. Squanto goes to them as a messenger and learns that they demand a hostage before Massasoit will cross the brook to discuss a treaty of peace. A young man, Edward Winslow, taking knives, a jeweled chain, and "a pot of strong water" (alcoholic liquor) as presents for the chief, and also "a good quantity of biscuit and some butter" brought from England, goes with Squanto and has him say to Massasoit: "We want

peace and trade with you." After eating and drinking, the Indians grow sociable. Massasoit admires the armor and sword which Winslow wears and offers to buy them, but Winslow signifies that he loves them too much to sell them.

Massasoit and twenty of his braves, leaving Winslow behind as a hostage, cross the brook, without their bows and arrows. Here, Miles Standish and his musketeers meet them and conduct them to a new house, where they sit down on a green rug and cushions. The governor of the Pilgrims enters with drum and trumpet. The Indians, wondering how so much noise got inside the trumpet, try to blow it like the trumpeter. The governor gives fresh meat to all and to the chief a "great draught of strong water."

The frightened children look at the tall athletic form of Massasoit, who seems able to catch a deer in a half day's race. They gaze at his face painted dark red, at his deadly long knife, at the string of bones around his neck, some of which look like the bones of children. Then their eyes wander to the other Indians, some of whom have painted a black strip three inches wide from forehead to chin. Others have their faces painted red, yellow, and white. Bogey figures give the cheeks of some a weird appearance. Some wear as ornaments feathers or foxtails in their long, straight, black hair, carry a fox skin on one arm, and have a deerskin thrown around them.



INDIAN PEACE PIPE

From original by Charles Bodmer. The Indian made peace not by signing a treaty but by smoking the pipe.

The governor and Massasoit then make their treaty, each promising to keep peace and to protect the other from enemies. The peace pipe takes the place of signatures

to this treaty. Massasoit fills his pipe from a tobacco pouch at his side, smokes a while in silence, and then hands the pipe to the governor, who has never smoked and who perhaps blows through the stem, driving the smoke outward. The use of tobacco by the Indians seems strange to the Pilgrims. Winslow, the hostage with the Indians, makes this observation: "The men take much tobacco, but for boys to do so, they count it odious."

SQUANTO BRINGS EELS

The smoking of the peace pipe seals the treaty. The governor conducts Massasoit and his Indians to the brook. The chief's brother then visits the Pilgrims. He is so afraid of the muskets that they are removed from his sight. When he goes back, both sides return their hostages. The Indians camp all night in the woods and in the morning Massasoit sends word that he is expecting a return call, so Miles Standish visits him and is given tobacco and ground nuts. This completes the ceremonies of peace. At the end of the day Squanto brings the Pilgrims enough fat eels for a feast. He has trodden them out of the mud and caught them with his bare hands.

How the Indians became more of a help than a hindrance.—Edward Winslow wrote to a friend in England: "We have found the Indians very faithful in their covenant of peace with us, and very loving and ready to pleasure us. We often go to them and they come to us. Some of us have been fifty miles by land in the country with them." Massasoit kept the treaty faithfully. For more than fifty years, no Pilgrims were harmed by his tribe. The Pilgrims' aim of "peace with all men," which their pastor had taught them in Holland, brought good results.

The Pilgrims built palisades around their houses and went armed to church because of frequent rumors that the Indians

would attack them. Once Miles Standish marched north with eight men and killed several threatening Indians. This act caused their former pastor, John Robinson, to write a letter from Holland warning that "where blood is once begun to be shed, it is seldom stanched for a long time after" and advising "tenderness for the life of man, made after God's image." He also complained because more effort had not been made to convert the Indians to Christianity before killing them. The use of the golden rule protected the Pilgrims more than their weapons. When Massasoit was very sick, Winslow visited him, gave him medicine, nursed him, and probably saved his life.

The Indians proved more of a help than a hindrance to the Pilgrims. Without the furs supplied by the red men, the Pilgrims could neither have paid their heavy debt for passage to America, nor could they have brought over other members of the Leyden congregation. Without the corn of the Indians, the teaching of Squanto, and his help in the treaty with Massasoit, the Pilgrims might have perished before the first year of the colony ended.

Thanksgiving.—Boys and girls are especially interested in the Plymouth colony, not only because nearly half of its members were of school age, but also for the reason that it is the only one of all the American colonies that has given to the United States a holiday which the President proclaims every year. That holiday is our Thanksgiving. We have it as a perpetual legacy because the Pilgrims were deeply religious and sincerely thankful to God for preserving them in this New World.

The first Thanksgiving was celebrated at Plymouth in 1621, after the harvest had been gathered. Governor Bradford sent out four hunters to provide game for the feast. They killed many wild fowl, probably including wild turkeys, since they were very plentiful. Massasoit and ninety Indians came as guests, outnumbering their hosts nearly two to one. The Indians brought five deer to the feast. Both races seem to have had a hearty good time, feasting and playing games. The influence of

the Pilgrims is still felt in this holiday, which brings absent ones back to the home circle and makes Americans a more thankful and a happier race.

THE FIRST THANKSGIVING FEAST

Experiment in communism.—In spite of such a bountiful Thanksgiving feast after the harvest, the Pilgrims were often in danger of starving because they were trying an experiment in communism, somewhat similar to the one which had failed at Jamestown (p. 56). The Pilgrims cultivated the land in common and put the crop into one storehouse for all. The lazy had as much corn as the hard workers. The colony would have starved if it had continued to till the ground for the common store, so Governor Bradford permitted each family to receive the full returns from its allotted piece of ground. After this change (1623), many who had complained that they were sick went to the fields to plant corn. The danger from starving passed when each family had all the food that its members produced.

Bradford's *History of Plymouth Plantation* tells of this communistic experiment in such a way as to make its results valuable

for twentieth-century lawmakers. He says that the actual trial of this "common course" proved its "vanity." He emphasizes the fact that "the taking away of property and bringing community into a commonwealth" had a fair trial "amongst godly and sober men" and that the result "would have been worse if they had been men of another condition." This experience of the Pilgrims shows that our early history is not dead matter but that a knowledge of it may help solve present problems.

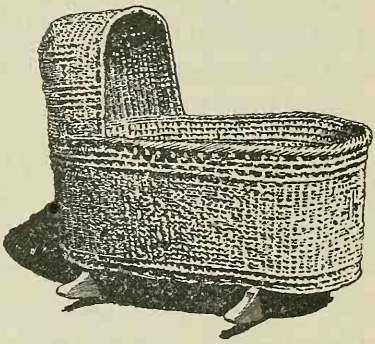
PILGRIMS GOING TO CHURCH

How the Pilgrims helped form American ideals.—The Pilgrims were successful in their two chief aims in coming to America. These were to worship in an independent church governed entirely by its own congregation, and to have more of a voice in their own government in everyday affairs. The colony grew and prospered under such government. Before it was twenty years old, there were ten different towns in Plymouth colony, each having its own independent Congregational Church.

Seventy-one years after its founding, Plymouth was merged in the larger Massachusetts colony (1691). Let us try to learn why the small Plymouth colony continues to hold such a high place in American history. We can understand the reason for this only after we know that the example and many of the aims of the Pilgrims have helped to form permanent American ideals.

We shall have a better idea of the meaning of Americanism after studying the following six paragraphs.

I. The Pilgrims made the home and its influence the cornerstone of religious and civil government. Bradford's *History of Plymouth Plantation* gives more space to the condition of the children and homes than to any other reason for leaving Holland. The "heavy labors" of the children and especially "the manifold temptations" which destroyed home influence were, says Bradford, "of all sorrows most heavy to be borne." His statements about the results of child labor and the decline of home influence are modern enough to have been written in the twentieth century. The Pilgrims brought their wives and children on the first voyage and made the home the unit of the colony at the start. Land was assigned to families, not to individuals. We do not know of any other colony in which the proportion of children was so large. The forward look for the welfare of the home and the child is to-day one of the most important characteristics of Americanism.



CRADLE IN PILGRIM HALL, PLYMOUTH
This was the cradle of Peregrine White, the first Pilgrim baby born in America.

II. The Pilgrims tried a new experiment in orderly self-government in both church and state. They were the first successful colonists to govern themselves from the day they landed, without help or suggestion from a colonizing company or king. The early Pilgrim colonists were entirely free to govern themselves because they settled north of the London Company's grant and had at first no assigned land. Their government was not at first so liberal or so democratic as our government was to become during the next three centuries which ended (1920) with giving the ballot to women, but the government of the

Pilgrims was unusually liberal and democratic for that age. They did not hesitate to deport to England a man like Thomas Morton, who was opposed to orderly self-government and who wanted to put firearms in the hands of the Indians. Self-government which is orderly is to-day a characteristic of Americanism.

III. The famous Mayflower Compact, which the Pilgrims signed before landing, was an agreement to "enact" and "obey" "just and equal laws," not class laws. Anyone who to-day wants a law that benefits his class at the expense of another class is not American in spirit. The belief of the Pilgrims in the same kind of simple justice for both the Indians and themselves enabled them to live at peace with the red men.

IV. The Pilgrims made the Ten Commandments their rule of action. One of the oft-quoted clauses of the Constitution of the United States forbids taking "life, liberty, or property without due process of law." This clause embodies the commandments, "Thou shalt not kill" and "Thou shalt not steal."

V. The Pilgrims believed in individual effort and self-reliance. These qualities, coupled with the spirit of brotherhood shown in severe trials in England, Holland, and America, remain characteristics of the best Americanism.

VI. Those who came in the *Mayflower* gave to their descendants an American title to nobility, new to the English world. This title rests solely on willingness to serve and to do the world's work instead of having it done by others. The Pilgrims attached no disgrace to labor. Governor Bradford worked in the fields like any other man. The women did the home work and made the clothes. Americans are to-day proud to trace their descent from these workers.

Summary of Points of Emphasis for Review.—(1) Who the Pilgrims were, (2) their leaders, (3) their pilgrimages, (4) the struggle of the Plymouth colony to survive, (5) the Pilgrim youth, (6) what Squanto taught the Pilgrims, (7) the first peace pageant, (8) how the Indians helped the Pilgrims, (9) the celebration of the first Thanksgiving, (10) why communism was a failure in the colony, (11) the ideals of the Pilgrims, (12) how a study of the Pilgrims helps to define Americanism.

Activities.—Draw on a map the course of the wanderings of the Pilgrims from the time they first left England until they landed at Plymouth Rock.

Write a clear definition of the word "Pilgrims."

Read *The First Landing at Plymouth* by Governor William Bradford (1620) in Hart's *Colonial Children*, 133–136.

Write a letter such as a Pilgrim might have written to a friend in the Leyden congregation at the end of the first winter.

Write a paragraph to tell why the "Pilgrim Youth" rather than the "Pilgrim Fathers" laid the foundation of the Pilgrim colony.

Present the first peace pageant at Plymouth or dramatize either the meeting between Squanto and the Pilgrims or the first Thanksgiving.

Why do you suppose the Indian boys were not permitted to use tobacco?

Prove that the Pilgrims could not have survived if they had not followed the golden rule.

State as forcibly as you can the arguments against communism as you might give them to a person who believes that community ownership is better than individual ownership.

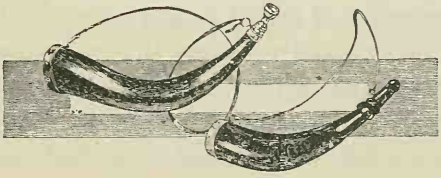
Give a three-minute talk on the aims of the Pilgrims.

"The Pilgrims set certain standards for what we call 'Americanism'." Let this be the opening sentence of a paragraph which you are to finish in such a way as to explain the meaning of the sentence.

Select from Longfellow's *Courtship of Miles Standish* passages which show (a) the character of the Pilgrims, (b) their manner of life.

References for Teachers.—Andrews, *The Fathers of New England* (Chron. of Am.), 1–20; Greene, *Foundations of Am. Nationality*, 87–95; Channing, *Hist. of the U. S.*, I., 293–317; Tyler, *England in America*, 149–182; Goodwin, *The Plymouth Republic;* Lord, *Plymouth and the Pilgrims;* Thwaites, *The Colonies*, 116–124; Bradford, *Hist. of the Plymouth Plantation;* Burgess, *John Robinson, Pastor of the Pilgrim Fathers;* Arber, *The Story of the Pilgrim Fathers;* Eggleston, *Beginners of a Nation*, 149–187.

For Pupils.—Usher, *Story of the Pilgrims;* Gordy, *American Leaders and Heroes*, 42–79; Foote and Skinner, *Explorers and Founders*, 136–148; Southworth, *Builders of Our Country*, I., 89–100; Tappan, *American Hero Stories*, 59–72; Otis, *Mary of Plymouth;* Austin, *Standish of Standish;* Dix, *Soldier Rigdale* (fiction).



Powder Horns

CHAPTER VI

PURITAN COLONIES IN NEW ENGLAND

The Puritans.—Those Englishmen who wished to "purify" the Church of England were called Puritans. They disliked the sign of the cross in baptism, the use of the word "priest," the wide authority of the bishops, and the reading of prayers. They wanted a stricter Sunday and better preaching. The Puritans were reformers who wished to make changes in both church and state; they demanded for themselves free souls and free bodies.

The Puritans at first wished to remain in the Church of England and purify it from the inside. The Pilgrims, on the other hand, were Separatists—persons who thought it their duty to separate from that church and found a new one. One reason why the Puritans did not come to America so early as the Pilgrims was because the Puritans waited to see if they could not reform the church without leaving it. Let us find out what happened in England while they waited.

The divine right of kings.—We cannot understand the reason for the rapid colonization of New England ten years after the Pilgrims settled there, unless we know the events that took place in England. Queen Elizabeth was succeeded by her cousin's son, James I (reigned from 1603 to 1625), who was already the king of Scotland. His son, Charles I, was the next king of both England and Scotland. This Stuart line of monarchs, as they were called, believed in the "divine right of kings." A clergyman of the Church of England thus stated this belief: "We believe and maintain that our kings derive their titles not from the people but from God. That to Him only are they accountable. That it belongs not to subjects, either to create or censure, but to honor and obey, their sovereign." Let

us see how attempted enforcement of this belief led to the colonization of New England.

Persecution.—James I declared that he would drive out of the kingdom those who did not accept the service of the Church of England. He required preachers to take oath that they believed that everything in the Prayer Book agreed with the teachings of the Bible. Hundreds refused to do this and were not allowed to preach. Under Charles I the persecution was still worse. William Laud, the archbishop of Canterbury, was determined to have religious uniformity of the narrowest kind. Those who insisted on preaching new doctrines were silenced. Some who criticized his religious tyranny were thrown into prison, or had their ears and noses mutilated.

There was also civil persecution. Men were thrown into prison for insisting that the king should govern according to the English constitution, which ordered that he should not tax the people without the consent of Parliament (pär'lĭ-ment). When he assembled Parliament, it would not vote him money for waging war or paying the other expenses of government unless he agreed to obey the law. He promised, but he thought that a king need not keep his promise, and so he broke it. He raised money in various ways and threw into prison those who complained that he taxed the people without consent of Parliament.

The resistance of the English people.—The English showed their objection to the doctrine of the divine right of kings in two ways. (1) Thousands of the best people left for New England. (2) The Puritans started a revolution in England. It may almost be said that the American Revolution began in England, since the Puritans fought as hard against tyranny in England as the colonists later fought against it in America.

In the second quarter of the nineteenth century, a Boston school boy delivered, before visitors, a speech which began: "For eighteen hundred years the world had slumbered in ignorance of liberty and of the true rights of freemen. At length

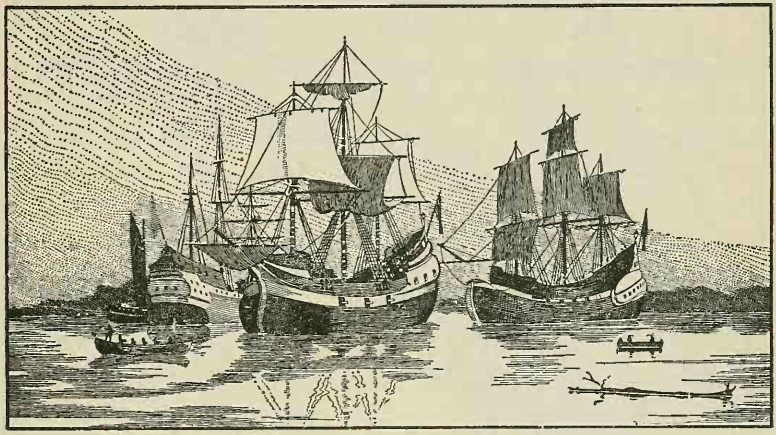
America arose in all her glory to give the world the desired lesson." That boy was rightly proud of the great deeds done by Americans, but he also needed to learn to appreciate what others have done. The Swiss and the Dutch, for example, had won their wars for liberty, and the English had fought against tyranny in England, more than a hundred years before the outbreak of the American Revolution. The Puritans took arms against the king and his followers, who were called Cavaliers (kăv-a-lērz′) or Royalists. The Puritans under the lead of the great general and statesman, Oliver Cromwell (1599–1658), waged a fierce civil war and won. They tried Charles I for treason on account of the bloodshed that he had caused. When some objected, Cromwell replied: "We will cut off his head with the crown upon it." Charles I was beheaded (1649), and the English had no king for eleven years. During a large part of that time, Cromwell ruled as Lord Protector. When Charles II, the son of Charles I, became king, he was careful not to quarrel with Parliament. The civil war in England taught English kings the divine right of the people—a truth which other kings were to learn later.

The great emigration.—Small parties of Englishmen came to New England at various times soon after the Pilgrims landed. Large numbers of Puritans finally made up their minds that they could not reform the Church of England and that they must follow the Pilgrims to New England in order to have either religious or civil liberty. Ten years after the coming of the Pilgrims, there began what has been called the "great emigration" (1630). In that year a fleet of vessels sailed into Massachusetts Bay, bringing a thousand Puritans to found the Massachusetts Bay colony, the central town of which was named Boston.

The leader of these Puritans and the governor of the Massachusetts Bay colony for many years was John Winthrop (1588–1649). He was well educated and wealthy and proved to be as capable a leader as Governor Bradford was of the Plymouth

Colony. Winthrop wrote in his *Journal* (often called *History of New England*) an interesting account of events in the Massachusetts Bay colony. In England he was called a "gentleman," but he tilled the ground and was willing to do any kind of hard work.

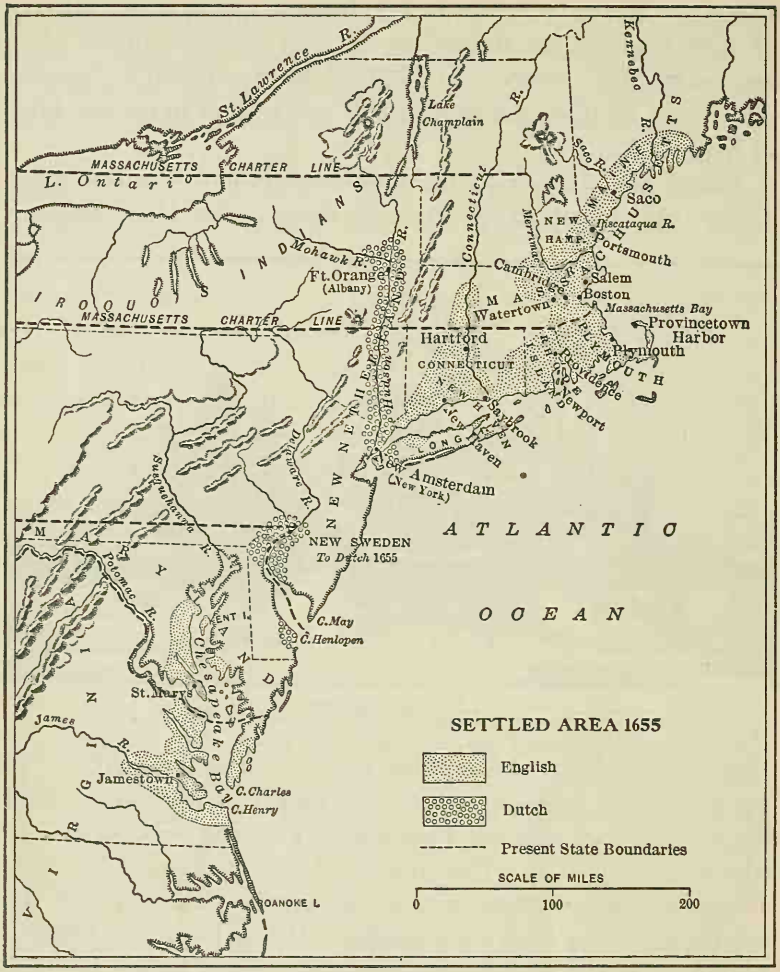
Extent and decline of the great emigration.—In ten years (1630–1640) about 20,000 Puritans came to the Massachusetts



WINTHROP'S FLEET IN BOSTON HARBOR, 1630

Bay colony. This was the time when religious persecution and the tyranny of the king were at their height. After having ruled for eleven years without Parliament, the king was obliged to summon one in 1640. The famous "Long Parliament" (1640–1660) soon took matters into its own hands. It had one of the chief ministers of the king beheaded. It imprisoned Archbishop Laud and later had him also beheaded. Even before the civil war began (1642) between the Puritans and the adherents of the king, emigration stopped because persecution had ceased.

It is believed that for the rest of the century (after 1640) more persons returned from New England than came to it. It was fortunate for the colonization of New England that the tyranny of Charles I and the religious persecution of Laud



NEW ENGLAND AND OTHER COLONIES IN 1655

remained at their height long enough to drive so many lovers of liberty to America.

We must remember that the Puritan victory sent numbers of the defeated Cavaliers or Royalists to Virginia, which was in favor of the king. George Washington's great-grandfather was

one of the Cavaliers who settled in Virginia. Strange as it may seem, the great descendant of this Cavalier was to fight a British king as hard as Cromwell fought Charles I.

A liberal charter gives a chance for self-government.—The Puritans settled Boston and other towns in the vicinity under a charter given by King Charles I to "The Governor and Company of the Massachusetts Bay." This charter granted the land between three miles south of the Charles River and three miles north of the Merrimac, extending west to the Pacific.

This charter was unusual because, unlike the one granted to the Virginia Company (p. 51), it did not require the governor and directors of the company to reside in England. The officers were Puritans, and they came with their charter to New England. For more than fifty years, the governor was elected by the members of the Massachusetts Bay Company and not appointed by the king as in Virginia. Nearly all the Puritan colonists were made "freemen" or members of the company.

This charter thus gave the men of the Massachusetts Bay colony the chance to elect their own representatives and to live very much as if they were citizens of an independent republic. This was fine training in self-government. When the people of Watertown were taxed to fortify a new town to protect it from Indian attack, they objected because they had not voted on the tax. Winthrop's *Journal* says they declared "it was not safe to pay moneys after that sort, for fear of bringing themselves and posterity into bondage." In the infancy of the settlement, the colonists took the same stand against their own government as against Great Britain at a later time.

Religious narrowness in New England.—We must not think that religious tyranny in England taught those who came to New England to allow others to have any religion that they chose. The Puritans, like the Pilgrims, had fled from religious persecution in the Old World and did not wish to be compelled to flee a second time. The Puritans also separated from the Church of England, later known in America as the Episcopal

Church. They followed the Pilgrims in joining the independent Congregational Church (p. 74), which was the only church recognized in the early New England colonies.

Most of those who came to New England agreed in religious matters, but it was as natural for some to change their opinions in the New World as it had previously been for the Puritans to disagree with the Church of England. The Puritans sent out of their colony those who demanded the right to teach and preach as they chose. When Quakers claiming this right entered Puritan meetinghouses, denounced Puritan beliefs and practices, and called them "seed of the Serpent," the Puritans banished all Quakers from Boston and warned that they would be hanged if they returned. Some came back, and the Puritans put an indelible stain on their colony by hanging four of them. The Pilgrims were patient with people of different beliefs who remained quiet, but for many years they sent away the Quakers and whipped them when they returned.

Witchcraft persecution.—One of the beliefs of the Puritans was of a stupid kind that had been held in Europe for hundreds of years. This was the belief that persons could become witches by entering into league with Satan. It was thought that such persons could cause bad luck, sickness, and death. If churning would not make the butter come, if hogs would not fatten, if a member of a family became sick, suspicion was often directed to some old and wrinkled woman or to some enemy as the cause. Such were likely to be accused of witchcraft and convicted on false or absurd testimony. If a woman had been seen to gather herbs and boil them in a pot, she was thought to be preparing a witches' broth. If she ever twitched nervously or muttered to herself, it was held certain that she was a witch.

On one of the early voyages to Virginia, an old woman was executed for raising a storm with violent waves. Before the middle of the seventeenth century, a witch was hanged in Connecticut. In the last part of that century there was an epidemic of belief in witchcraft at Sa'lem, Massachusetts, which

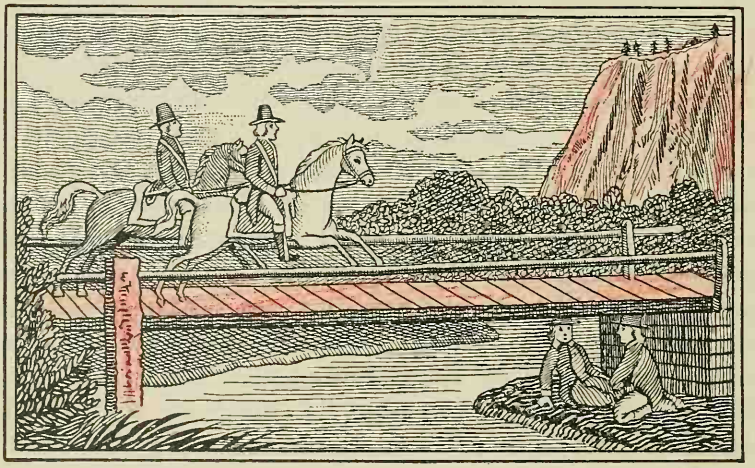
resulted in the imprisonment of more than two hundred persons and the hanging of nineteen. The executions then ended, and in time the laws against witches were repealed; but the horseshoe still nailed to the hog's trough or the stable door to keep the witches away shows that a belief in them still lingers in remote parts of the country.

A new kind of colonization; the Connecticut colony.—Boston and the towns in its vicinity were settled by people direct from England. There was soon to be a new kind of colonization. Men from the Massachusetts Bay colony who wished to escape its strict religion or who wanted better lands began to found new colonies.

Some colonists sailed from Boston around Cape Cod, through Long Island Sound, and up the Connecticut River. Men from Massachusetts built a fort at Saybrook near the mouth of that river (1635) to shut out Dutch vessels. Other colonists went from Boston and Plymouth overland to the Connecticut valley. Thomas Hooker (1586–1647), the great Connecticut pioneer, was a Puritan clergyman from England, who became pastor of a church in what is now Cambridge, Massachusetts. After living there three years, he and his congregation, numbering nearly as many as the *Mayflower* Pilgrims, started west in the spring of 1636 in search of a new home. Mrs. Hooker was sick and had to be carried on a litter, but the pioneers did not delay for such a reason. They took with them cows, goats, and swine. Each night the congregation went into camp and had guards for protection against Indian attack. Each morning the squealing of the pigs and lowing of the cattle awoke them. For fourteen days men, women, and children followed Indian trails or struggled through the pathless forest, then bursting into leaf and carpeted in places by the wild violet and anemone. Their one hundred and sixty cattle pastured in open places covered with green grass and yellow cowslips. There was morning and evening prayer, and we may be sure that all remained in camp on the two Sabbaths of the journey. This migration took more

time than an immigrant needs to-day to come from central Europe to the Middle West. This pioneer movement is important in American history because it was the first large attempt at westward migration, which was not to stop until the country was settled to the Pacific.

Those who wish to give a pageant of the early American pioneers on their way to found a new colony should choose Hooker and his congregation. Before this, pastors of churches had moved with their entire flock from Boston and its vicinity to new homes in Massachusetts. Hooker and his followers came to what is now Hartford, Connecticut. They settled there and in near-by towns. The Connecticut colony owes its beginning to immigrants from Massachusetts and Plymouth.



How Two Judges that Condemned Charles I Escaped their Pursuers

From an early eighteenth-century cut. Officers of Charles II sent to New Haven to arrest these judges pursued them so closely that they barely escaped by concealing themselves under a bridge, across which the officers galloped a moment later. The judges then climbed West Rock, shown at the right of the picture, and concealed themselves in what has since been called the Judges' Cave.

The New Haven colony.—Soon after Hooker and his congregation came to Connecticut, a congregation of English Puritans stopped for six months in Boston on their way to plant a colony at New Haven (1638). They declared that the Bible

should be their only law book, and they would not have trial by jury because it was not ordered by the Holy Word.

New Haven and the other towns in its vicinity, planted by these English Puritans, were not at first a part of the Connecticut colony. King Charles II was angry with New Haven because it sheltered some of the judges that sentenced his father to death. He punished it by ending its existence as a separate colony (1665) and making it a part of Connecticut. If this had not been done, we might to-day have two states within the present limits of Connecticut.

The colony of Rhode Island.—Roger Williams (1603?–1663), a Puritan clergyman at Salem, Massachusetts, was banished because he said the officers of the colony should have no authority over the church, and that the church and the state should be separate. He made the colonists angry by telling them that they had stolen the land from the Indians, because the king's charter could not give a right to what he did not own.

Roger Williams fled, bought land from the Indians, and founded the town of Providence (1636). He invited to it those who had been driven out of Boston and all who wanted religious freedom. Other towns were soon founded in that part of New England, and these in addition to Providence later formed the colony of Rhode Island. This colony, like Connecticut, was founded by those who migrated from Massachusetts.

Why Roger Williams is called "modern."—The term "modern" is applied to Roger Williams because he was in advance of his time in believing (1) that there should be no union between church and state, (2) that everybody should worship as he chooses, (3) that no one should be punished for not attending religious service or for not contributing to the support of the church.

Rhode Island was a colony where all kinds of religious belief were welcome. Neither Catholics nor Jews, nor unbelievers, were excluded. There was much dispute and wrangling over different views, but no bloodshed.

New Hampshire, Maine, and Vermont.—New Hampshire, originally the country between the Merrimac and Piscat'aqua rivers, had a few settlers soon after Plymouth was colonized. In the first year of the great emigration to Massachusetts Bay, a party of farmers and fishermen, all of them Episcopalians, settled at Portsmouth. Some colonists came from Massachusetts because of religious disputes.

New Hampshire was twice joined to Massachusetts and twice separated, the last time in 1691. From that year until the Revolution it was a royal colony.

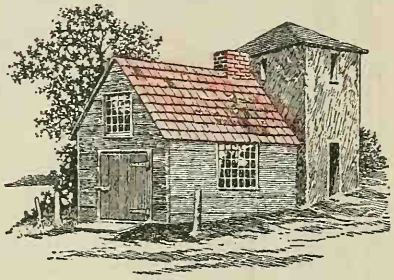
Maine had a temporary settlement, as we have seen (p. 36), in the same year in which Jamestown was settled. In the early years, Saco (sô'kō), founded about 1623, was the principal town. For a long time the settlers were few in number, consisting chiefly of hunters, fishermen, and agents of London companies. In 1691 Maine was made part of Massachusetts (which had held much of it after 1652), and it remained such until admitted to the Union as a separate state in 1820.

Vermont was not one of the original thirteen colonies. Her territory was long in dispute between New York and New Hampshire, but her brave "Green Mountain Boys," as the settlers called themselves, formed their own government and were admitted to the Union as the fourteenth state (1791).

League of colonies.—Four New England colonies, Massachusetts, Plymouth, Connecticut, and New Haven, formed a league, known as the United Colonies of New England (1643). The chief purpose of this union was to present a united front in dealings with the Indians and with the Dutch settlers of the Hudson valley. Wars were to be prevented if possible, or were to be waged with the joint forces of the league. Provision was also made for preventing disputes between the colonies. The governing body of the league was made up of two commissioners from each of the four colonies.

Trouble with the Indians.—We have seen (p. 71) that the first generation of Pilgrims remained at peace with the Indians.

The Puritans made efforts to convert the red men to Christianity. The Puritan, John El'iot, a great missionary, translated the Scriptures into the Indian tongue and made converts who were known as "praying Indians." These were not much liked by the other red men because the praying Indians imitated the white men and warned them of Indian plots. Sometimes the husband and wife disagreed about the new religion. Once, when an Indian child was sick, the unconverted mother sent for a medicine man who yelled and danced to cast the devil out of the child. The father, a praying Indian, brought a Puritan clergyman who besought the Lord to cast out the medicine man and heal the child. Many Indians, attracted by the noise, came to see who would win. After a contest lasting three hours, the perspiring medicine man gave up and jumped into a river to cool himself. The child recovered.



SCHOOLHOUSE AND WATCH HOUSE, 1648

This schoolhouse at Dedham, Massachusetts, was 18 x 15 ft. The watch house in the rear was built to enable the watchman to see Indians trying to steal up to kill the children.

The Connecticut valley settlements in the heart of the red men's hunting grounds caused trouble which religion could not prevent. If another race came uninvited into the middle of our country to-day and began to settle on it, we should fight if they did not leave. This is exactly what the Indians did. They tomahawked the settlers and burned their dwellings.

War with the Pequots; King Philip's War.—The first serious Indian war came before the union of the colonies and taught them that they needed to unite. This was the war against the Pequot tribe of Indians, whose stronghold was in southeastern Connecticut. Colonists from Connecticut and Massachusetts, assisted by a much larger force of friendly Indians, surrounded the Pequots before daybreak and set their wigwams on fire.

STORMING THE NARRAGANSETT FORT

From an early eighteenth century drawing. The muskets, seen in the hands of the colonists crossing the log bridge, were difficult to load and fire. The powder and ball were put in separately and held in position by a wad forced down the barrel by a ramrod. The pan at the breech had to be primed and fired by the hammer which struck a spark from a flint. An Indian could discharge twenty arrows while a musket was being loaded.

Nearly all of the 400 (some say 700) Pequot men, women, and children in the village were either shot or driven back into the flames to die (1637). It was six years after this war before the colonies could agree to form their league.

There was no other Indian war in New England for nearly forty years after the awful slaughter of the Pequots. Then what is known as King Philip's War began (1675), when several Indian tribes combined in a struggle to save their lands. This war lasted for nearly two years and included the Indians as far north as Maine and west to the Hudson River. Philip, son of Massasoit (p. 69), was their leader. They massacred or carried into captivity the inhabitants of many of the outlying towns. Colonists from all the members of the league fought side by side in an attack on the stronghold of the Narragansett tribe of Indians in a swamp in southwestern Rhode Island (1675). The loss of the colonists was heavy before they set fire to the wigwams and almost destroyed the Narragansett tribe. King

Philip was finally killed in 1676, and the power of the New England Indians was forever broken. One tenth of all the white men of military age had been killed or taken captive during the two years of this war. The cost of the struggle was more than £100,000, a sum estimated to exceed the personal property of the colonists.

The town and town meeting.—The Puritans' first unit of settlement was a town, which was founded by a clergyman and his congregation living around a church as the center. Several square miles of farming lands were included in the town, but the settlers in the early days built a stockade around their group of homes to protect them from the Indians and went outside to till the fields.

The early town meeting was an assemblage of the town's male church members to elect officials and pass laws for its people. The town meeting voted taxes, and elected tax collectors, assessors, and overseers of the highway. It made laws for the town, such as acts forbidding the people to let cows or geese run at large. One town meeting ordered that at corn-planting time every dog should have one fore leg tied up, so that he could not dig up and eat the fish buried under the corn to fertilize it. These towns were like little colonies within a large colony.

Colonial government.—Until the latter part of the seventeenth century, New England colonies were almost independent republics. They elected their own governors, representatives, and magistrates, and voted their own taxes. The colonies took many of their ideas of government from England. As Massachusetts towns grew up outside of Boston, they chose representatives to go to Boston to vote for them. Their idea of representative government and of allowing no one but their own representatives to vote taxes came from England.

The early New England colonists had two ways in which they learned how to govern themselves: (1) Their experience in town meeting served as a sort of common school to teach self-government to the small group living in the town. (2) The

combination of all the towns to manage the affairs of the entire colony gave them experience in a higher school.

How the restoration of the English monarchy affected the Puritans.—A short time after the death of Oliver Cromwell, the monarchy was restored in England and Scotland (1660)—an event called the Restoration. Charles II, the new king, did not like the Puritans, who had beheaded his father (Charles I). He took away the charter of Massachusetts and for a while (from 1684 to 1691) it was a royal colony, after two generations of colonists had formed the habit of self-government.

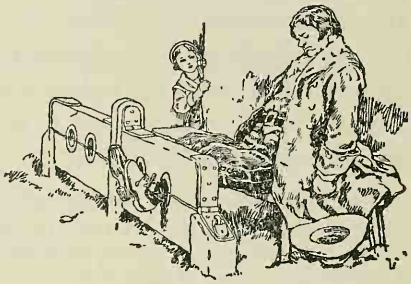
Charles II was succeeded by his brother, James II, who was a Catholic (reigned from 1685 to 1688). James II, wishing to combine the New England colonies for defense against the French and Indians, made Sir Edmund Andros governor of all the New England colonies and then extended his authority over New York and New Jersey. Andros had his capital in Boston, where he could watch the people of Massachusetts, and he became a tyrant. He tried to force them to use the Episcopal marriage service and to allow Episcopalians to worship in Congregational churches. He insulted the Puritans of Boston by ordering them to close their shops on the day which marked what he called "the martyrdom of Charles I." The tyranny of Andros was long remembered in Massachusetts.

James II believed in the divine right of kings. When he tried to govern contrary to law, the English drove him from the kingdom in their bloodless Revolution of 1688 and gave the crown to his Protestant son-in-law and daughter, William and Mary. Since then, the kings of Great Britain have given up the idea of the divine right of kings and have ruled according to law. When James was dethroned, the people of Massachusetts deposed Andros. They received a new charter from William and Mary (1691), but they did not recover the right of electing their own governor.

Religious commonwealths.—In one respect, both Puritan and Pilgrim settlements were unusual. They took the Bible

and religion as their guide in governing themselves. Massachusetts was founded as a religious colony and she allowed only church members to vote while the first generation of settlers lived.

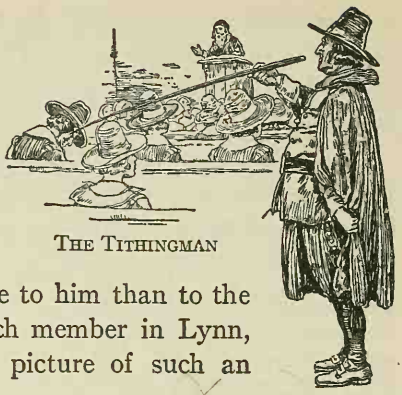
The log-built church or "meetinghouse" was the center of authority in early New England. The well-educated clergy, many of whom were graduates of Cambridge University, England, helped make the laws and guide the actions of everyday life. There was severe punishment for those who did not keep the Sabbath day holy. No one was expected on that day to do any unnecessary work, such as shaving, cooking food, or washing dishes. A man was fined forty shillings for mending his shoe on Sunday to protect his foot. No idle walking abroad or social conversation was allowed on Sunday. A Boston sea captain, after an absence of three years, kissed his wife on the front door step of his house. For this "unseemly behaviour on Sunday" he was put in the stocks for two hours.



STOCKS USED IN NEW ENGLAND
Notice the hinge and the lock.

A different kind of Sunday might have been seen in England. The king and archbishop of the Church of England favored giving up Sunday afternoons to athletic games, dancing, and other amusements. Bearbaiting was a favorite Sunday afternoon sport. Crowds went to see a chained bear tortured by dogs. One reason why the Puritans left England was to escape such Sundays.

Church service.—Those who went to Sunday service in a Puritan meetinghouse in winter found no fire. The clergyman while preaching often had to wear thick mittens to keep his hands from freezing. The congregation often listened to a sermon two hours long and to a prayer half that length.



THE TITHINGMAN

The tithingman was an official who watched to see that the boys kept good order and that no one slept during the long service. His movements were always interesting to the young people and often also to the elders, whose journals sometimes give more space to him than to the sermon. The diary of a church member in Lynn, Massachusetts, gives a vivid picture of such an official engaged in his duties:—

"June 3, 1646.—Allen Bridges hath bin chose to wake the sleepers in meeting. And being much proude of his place, must needs have a fox tail fixed to the end of a long staff wherewith he may brush the faces of them that will have napps in time of discourse, likewise a sharpe thorne whereby he may pricke such as be most sound. On the last Lord's day as hee struted about the meeting-house, he did spy Mr. Tomlins sleeping with much comfort, his head kept steadie by being in the corner, and his hand grasping the rail. And soe spying, Allen did quickly thrust his staff behind Dame Ballard and give him a grievous prick upon the hand. Whereupon Mr. Tomlins did spring up much above the floor, and with terrible force did strike his hand against the wall; and also, to the great wonder of all, prophanlie exclaim in a loud voice, 'Curse the woodchuck,' he dreaming, so it seemed, that a woodchuck had seized and bit his hand."

Ideals of the Puritans.—We may wonder why the Puritans insisted on such strict observance of the Sabbath and endured such long sermons. New England's successful early settlements were due to the fact that the settlers thought religion the greatest force in life. It seemed to them that they were merely following the commandment to keep the Sabbath day holy, and they knew of no better way than by going to church. Their belief that they were doing God's will kept them at their hard task and enabled them to win. John Milton, the greatest Puritan writer in England, gives the controlling ideal and aim of Puritanism in one line of his verse, in which he says it was his own purpose to live

"As ever in my great Task-Master's eye."

Summary of Points of Emphasis for Review.— (1) Who the Puritans were, (2) what is meant by the "divine right of kings," (3) religious and civil persecution in England, (4) how the English showed their objection to the doctrine of the divine right of kings, (5) the result of the Puritan revolution in England, (6) what the "great emigration" was, (7) how long it lasted and why it ceased, (8) how the Massachusetts Bay colony was self-governing, (9) why the Puritans did not permit those of different religious belief to remain in the colony, (10) persecution of witches, (11) how the colonization of Connecticut differed from that of Massachusetts, (12) the New Haven colony, (13) Roger Williams and his colony, (14) New Hampshire, Maine, and Vermont, (15) the union of the colonies, (16) Indian wars, (17) the town and town meeting, (18) government of the New England colonies, (19) results of the Restoration, (20) what a religious commonwealth is, (21) Puritan church service, (22) the Puritan ideal.

Activities.—Write brief definitions of the following terms: Puritans, Separatists, Pilgrims.

Explain the connection between the belief in the divine right of kings and the "great emigration."

Take the place of the Boston school boy (p. 79) and write on his subject a one-hundred-word speech.

Contrast the emigration from England to Massachusetts with that from Massachusetts to Connecticut. Why is the colonization of Connecticut an important event in American history?

Imagine yourself a Quaker in early Massachusetts and write fifty words to describe the Puritans; then imagine yourself a Puritan and write fifty words to describe the Quakers.

Look up the English Revolution of 1688, which figures so much in American as well as in English history. Why is it important?

Give a three-minute talk on the difference between a New England town and a Virginia plantation.

References for Teachers.—Andrews, *The Fathers of New England* (Chron. of Am.), 21–99; Channing, *Hist. of the U. S.*, I., 271–291, 322–411; Tyler, *England in Am.*, XI.–XVI., XVIII.; Thwaites, *The Colonies*, 124–177; Egerton, *Origin and Growth of English Colonies*, 84–107; Becker, *Beginnings of the American People*, 86–124; Eggleston, *Beginners of a Nation*, 98–149, 188–215, 266–346; Greene, *Foundations of Am. Nationality*, 95–129; Winthrop, *Journal;* Hart, *Am. Hist. Told by Contemporaries*, I., 366–438; Green (or some other), *Short Hist. of the English People* (1603–1660); Straus (or Hull), *Roger Williams;* Gardiner, *The Puritan Revolution.*

For Pupils.—Southworth, *Builders of Our Country*, I., 101–122; Foote and Skinner, *Explorers and Founders*, 150–166; Gordy, *American Leaders and Heroes*, 81–90; Eggleston, *Our First Century*, 73–100; Hawthorne, *The Gentle Boy* (*Twice Told Tales*) and *Grandfather's Chair;* Otis, *Ruth of Boston* (fiction).

CHAPTER VII

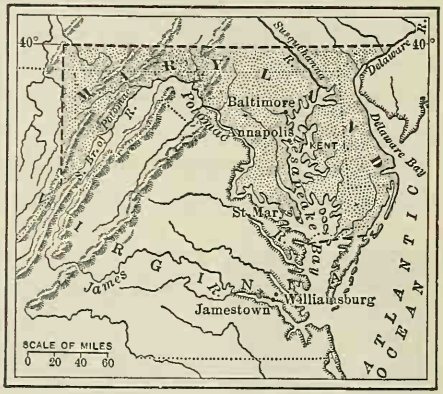
MARYLAND, THE CAROLINAS, AND GEORGIA

A problem.—We can understand the Maryland colony better if we first try to solve this problem: Suppose that we had lived in England in the first third of the seventeenth century and had stood so high in the king's favor that he would have been willing to give us the control of a new colony in America. What powers of government should we have wished him to give us? Should we have desired the power to tax, imprison, pardon, appoint judges, give titles of honor, and propose all the laws? What authority over the religion in our colony should we have desired? Suppose that we had wished to do some one thing that no English colony had done before, neither Virginia, nor Plymouth, nor Massachusetts Bay, what would it have been? What would have been our main object in directing our colony? Would it have been pleasure, wealth, power over others, or should we have had some aim for which history to the end of time would praise us? After we have thought out our plans for our colony, we shall be interested in comparing them with what the founder of Maryland actually did.

Lord Baltimore's province and powers.—King James I of England gave the title of Lord Baltimore to one of his favorites, George Calvert, a graduate of Oxford University. Calvert was a man of character who wanted to do something important in the world. He wrote in one of his letters: "All things in this world pass away: wife, children, honors, wealth, friends, and what else is dear to flesh and blood. They are but lent us till God please to call them back again." Such was the man who wanted the control of a province in America.

King Charles I agreed to give Lord Baltimore a charter to land north of the Poto′mac River from its source to its mouth

in Chesapeake Bay and thence east to the ocean. The eastern boundary was the Atlantic Ocean and Delaware Bay; the northern, the parallel of 40° north latitude, which runs a little north of the present city of Philadelphia; and the western, the meridian of longitude passing through the source of the Potomac. The king asked that the name "Maryland" should be given to this province in honor of his queen, Henrietta Maria. Maryland later lost much of this territory, on the east, north, and west.



MARYLAND: GRANT TO LORD BALTIMORE

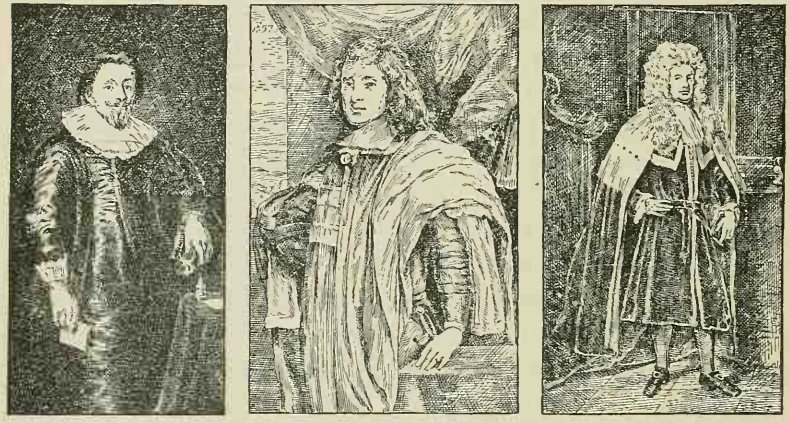
Portions on the north, east, and west were afterward lost to Pennsylvania, Delaware, and Virginia. Kent Island was held for a time by William Claiborne, who resisted Lord Baltimore's authority and made much trouble for Maryland for many years.

The charter made Lord Baltimore and his heirs proprietors of the province. Maryland was the first successful English proprietary colony in America. A proprietary colony was one under the control of a proprietor and not of the king, as in Virginia, or of the people, as in Plymouth and Massachusetts Bay. The proprietor of Maryland was given the right to wage war, establish courts, appoint judges and other officials in the colony, pardon crimes, grant or sell land, collect duties on imports and exports, and propose all the laws. The proprietor owned the land (except what he sold or gave away); he controlled the courts of justice; he alone could give titles of honor. The king of England could not impose any tax on the people in the proprietor's colony nor change their laws. The proprietor had to acknowledge his allegiance to the king and in witness of this to send him two Indian arrows every year.

The proprietor himself was almost a king, but, like the king of England, he was a constitutional ruler, that is, a ruler who

could not do just what he pleased, but who had to obey the constitution of his land. The proprietor could not deprive any one of life, limb, or property except by the decision of a court of law. The laws which he proposed did not become effective until the colonists voted to accept them. He soon allowed the people to propose laws. This charter gave the proprietor more powers and the people more rights than England had ever before granted to a colony.

George Calvert, first Lord Baltimore, has the honor of planning the colony of Maryland. Before the charter was signed, he died,



First, Second, and Third Lords Baltimore

Showing the costume of English noblemen in the seventeenth century; from portraits in the collection of the Maryland Historical Society. These three Baltimores were Catholics; the third, Charles Calvert, was deprived of the political control of Maryland in 1691. The fifth Lord Baltimore was a Protestant. Maryland was restored to him in 1715.

and it was given (1632) to his son, Cecilius Calvert, second Lord Baltimore, who ably carried out his father's plans.

The new aim of the colony.—Religious toleration for all Christians was the new aim in founding Maryland. Virginia drove out Puritans and demanded that all should attend the Episcopal form of worship. Plymouth and Massachusetts Bay were colonized by those who had separated from the Church of England and who did not wish to have in their midst any who

did not agree with them in matters of religion. Maryland was the first colony planned in England to welcome all Christians, no matter how much their opinions might differ.

At this time Roman Catholics were persecuted in England and not allowed to have public places of worship. The Calverts were Roman Catholics, and they determined to found a colony where Protestant and Catholic would alike be welcome and allowed to worship as they chose. The Calverts have a distinguished place in American history because they were the first to plan a colony with such an aim. The charter for Maryland was secured before Roger Williams planted a colony in Rhode Island, where not only all Christians but also Jews and others were welcome.

Settlement at St. Marys.—Lord Baltimore's first colonists numbered about two hundred and included both Catholics and Protestants, the latter being in the majority. They came on two vessels, the *Ark* and the *Dove*. They found on the St. Marys River a pleasant Indian village surrounded by cornfields and fine trees. The Indians sold this town to the settlers, together with its wigwams, cornfields, and thirty miles of land, and received in payment axes, hatchets, and cloth. Here, Baltimore's colonists founded the town of St. Marys (1634), named in honor of the Virgin Mary.

They arrived in March and had the Indians occupy half the village until the crops were gathered. During that time the colonists became the pupils of the Indians. The squaws taught the English women how to make palatable corn bread, or "pone," as they called it, and also how to prepare and boil kernels of corn to make the dish known as "samp." The squaws showed how deerskins could be dressed so as to make them soft and fit for clothing.

The Indians taught the men how to hunt deer, wild turkeys, ducks, and geese, and how to plant corn. The colonists raised so much corn the first year that they sent a shipload of it to New England and received dried fish in exchange.

Toleration.—There was toleration from the beginning for both Protestants and Catholics. The Catholic proprietor, Lord Baltimore, invited the Puritans to settle there when they were driven out of Virginia. It was his aim to have all Christians treated alike. His government fined one William Lewis five hundred pounds of tobacco for forbidding his servants to read Protestant books and for unkind treatment of Protestants.

Maryland's famous Toleration Act (1649) was a confirmation by law of the practice in the colony. Its most famous clause reads as follows:

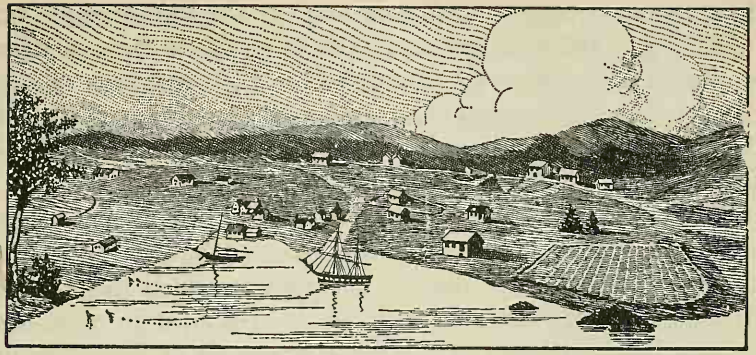
"No person or persons whatsoever within this Province, professing to believe in Jesus Christ, shall from henceforth be in any ways troubled, molested, or discountenanced for, or in respect of, his or her religion . . . nor any way compelled to the belief or exercise of any other religion, against his or her consent."

This law was in advance of all English legislation of the time. The English laws about religious belief were then so strict that, the year before this Toleration Act, Parliament had passed a law for inflicting the death penalty on any one who denied that the bodies of men rose after death.

Maryland had fifty years of toleration of all Christian beliefs. Changes in England then caused the Church of England to become the official church of the colony and deprived the Catholics of the right to worship publicly until the colonists declared their independence in 1776. The fact that different religious bodies could live peaceably together for so long a time was not forgotten when the Revolution came and our present Constitution was made.

Development of the colony.—Tobacco raising was at first the chief occupation. The tobacco plantations extended along the rivers, creeks, and Chesapeake Bay. It was later found that the soil of Maryland was well suited for wheat, and large quantities of that grain were grown.

In early times roads were not needed because ships could come direct to the plantations. There were few towns. The conditions



BALTIMORE IN 1752

From a sketch by Moale in the collection of the Maryland Historical Society. This city, on the Patapsco River, was not founded until 1729.

of life were much like those in Virginia. Maryland had many white servants. Some negro slaves came about thirty years after the founding of the colony.

There were times when the Baltimore family lost control of Maryland, but they regained it, and it was a prosperous proprietary colony at the time of the Revolution.

Carolina.—When Charles II became king in 1660 (p. 92), he had many favorites to reward. He gave to eight of them a stretch of territory between Virginia and Florida, extending westward from sea to sea. Florida was then Spanish territory.

This grant of land, the northern part of which was sparsely settled by men from Virginia, was given for the formation of a new colony to be called Carolina in honor of Charles I, whose name in Latin was *Car'olus*. It was a proprietary colony, like Maryland, but had eight proprietors instead of one.

Aim of the proprietors.—The eight proprietors were given nearly the same rights as Baltimore had in Maryland. They had a fine chance to do something that would cause their names to live, but most of them were what we should now call "reactionaries," that is, men who want to restore past conditions. The first aim of the proprietors was "*to avoid erecting a numerous democracy*," or, in other words, to keep the mass of the people

from having a voice in their government. The Puritan uprising, which led to the colonization of New England, to the execution of Charles I, and to the rule of Oliver Cromwell, was due to the spirit of democracy among the middle and lower classes of England. Charles II and his favorites who had suffered from democracy naturally wished to discourage it.

Fundamental Constitutions of Carolina.—The famous English philosopher, John Locke, was asked to assist in drawing up for the Carolina colony a plan of government which was known as "The Fundamental Constitutions." He tried to meet the wish of the proprietors to keep the government of the colony in their hands. The Constitutions provided for hereditary lords with large estates. The common people were never to leave the land of their lord without his signed and sealed permission. Their children were never to better their condition but were to keep the rank of their fathers "to all generations." The workers were to be like the serfs who were tied to the soil in medieval England. Locke himself believed that Englishmen should be "free and unequal," and that the chief purpose of government was to regulate and protect property.

Opposition of the colonists.—The proprietors did not realize that colonists would come to America only to take a forward step, not a backward one to the time of the Crusades. The colonists never accepted Locke's Constitutions. The proprietors tried to prevent self-government, but they did not succeed, because so many self-reliant, intelligent settlers came to Carolina. No men in other colonies struggled more persistently for the right of self-government. The Americanism of the Carolinians was as sterling as that of the Pilgrims (p. 74). In struggling for self-government, the Carolinians learned the game of politics. Their love of independence, which developed in the long contest for their natural rights, became a tower of strength to all the colonies at the time of the Revolution.

A modern idea.—Locke put in the Carolina scheme of government a modern idea that attracted the attention of French

Protestants, who came in large numbers. He declared that any seven people who agreed in regard to God and religion should be allowed to form a church. Such religious liberty was not fully given, but many came to Carolina because, as one of her governors said, the colony had "great power to grant liberty of conscience" when there was in England "a hot persecuting time." The proprietors learned that religious toleration added to the value of land in a colony. Those who came to the New World for religious reasons, no matter whether Catholics to Maryland or Protestants to New England and to Carolina, usually made good, thoughtful citizens.

Carolina becomes two royal colonies.—The representatives of the people in South Carolina offered the proprietors' lands for sale to settlers to help pay the cost of fighting the Indians and the Spaniards. The proprietors vetoed this act, and the assembly petitioned the British king for the right to become a royal colony. When the proprietors, wearied with the long struggle against the people, sold to the king for £50,000 all their rights in Carolina (1729), he divided the province into two royal colonies, North and South Carolina. The chief settlements in the two colonies were so far apart that each district needed a separate government.

THE CAROLINAS AND GEORGIA AFTER 1732

New England vessels did a thriving trade in buying North Carolina lumber and cattle. The tar and pitch from the North Carolina pine forests were in demand for building ships. The swamps of South Carolina became noted for their great yield of

rice. Large numbers of negro slaves were imported because it was unhealthful for white people to work in the malarial rice fields. Much indigo was raised to make dyes. Cotton did not become a leading crop until after the Revolution. Charleston (founded 1670) soon became a thriving colonial city. It was an important trading port and a center of attractive social life.

James Oglethorpe, Georgia's Good Samaritan.—James O'glethorpe (1696–1785), an English army officer, had a friend who was arrested for debt. The brutal jailer, failing to get a bribe, purposely thrust him into a prison where there was smallpox. He caught the disease and died in a few days, leaving a destitute wife and children. Oglethorpe had his attention thus called to the horrors of debtors' prisons in England.

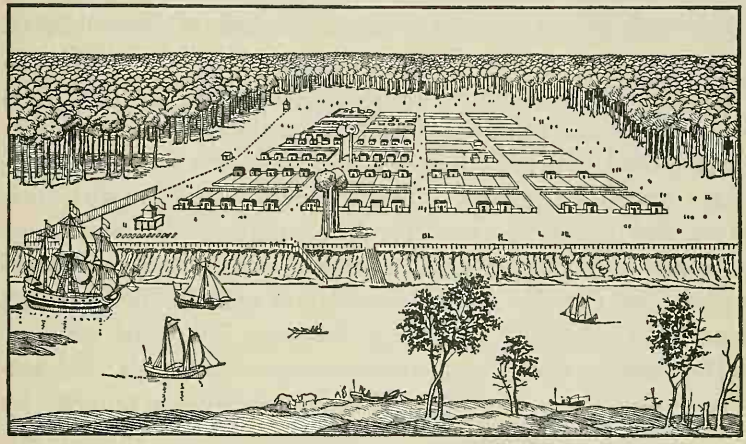
George Calvert's problem was to secure toleration for all Christians (p. 99). Oglethorpe set himself the problem of improving debtors' prisons and providing a chance for such unfortunates under better conditions. He became chairman of a parliamentary investigating committee and learned of the bribery and unspeakable cruelty practiced by the jailers. In modern times he would have been called a welfare worker. He was then known as a philanthropist, or lover of mankind.

Oglethorpe tried to solve his problem by founding a colony in America where unfortunate debtors might go. He and his associates secured from the king a charter for a tract of land between the Savannah and Altamaha (ôl-t*a*-m*ȧ*-hô′) rivers, extending west from sea to sea (1732). This country was called Georgia in honor of the king, who was George II. The charter was the more readily granted because Georgia would protect the Carolinas from Spanish inroads. The purpose of founding Georgia has therefore been called "half philanthropic and half military," but the colony was early known as "an asylum for the oppressed."

The colony of Georgia.—Georgia was the last of the thirteen colonies to be founded. It began as a proprietary colony, like Maryland and Carolina, but the proprietors were only a body

of trustees who received no profit. The charter specified that Georgia was to become a royal colony at the end of twenty-one years.

Oglethorpe selected the most promising debtors and other unfortunates and brought them across the Atlantic at his own



EARLY VIEW OF SAVANNAH

From a painting published in London in 1741. All the streets of Savannah cross one another at right angles, in accordance with Oglethorpe's original plan for the city.

expense. He settled at Savannah (1733) and became the governor of the colony. He was the soul of the enterprise and he remained there to direct it for nearly ten years.

It was resolved to admit no settlers who did not have steady habits. The Georgia colony did two unusual things for that time: it (1) excluded slaves and (2) prohibited the importation of rum. Numbers of Scotch Highlanders and German Protestants, besides Englishmen, came to Georgia. There was religious toleration for all except Catholics.

Oglethorpe had to spend much of his time and energy in successfully defending his colony from the attacks of the Spaniards in Florida. From the military point of view, Georgia was a success.

Change in the colony.—After working nearly ten years for the welfare of the colony and spending most of his money, Oglethorpe returned to England. The Georgia settlers were dissatisfied because they thought that they needed slaves to compete with the Carolinians north of the Savannah River. George Whitefield (hwĭt′fēld), a famous English missionary, agreed with the settlers and declared that lack of slaves delayed progress. Fur trading with the Indians was very profitable. Since the Indians often preferred rum to money for their furs, the colonists said that rum ought to be allowed in Georgia.

Slaves and rum came into the colony a few years after Oglethorpe left. Planters from South Carolina then came with their slaves and began to raise rice and indigo, which were more profitable than the production of silk, which had been tried earlier. The founders wanted a colony of small landholders, but the coming of slavery brought in the large plantation system.

The trustees were disappointed because Georgia did not succeed on the lines planned by Oglethorpe, and so they surrendered their proprietorship (1752) before the end of the twenty-one years. Georgia then became a royal colony.

JAMES OGLETHORPE AT THE AGE OF EIGHTY-EIGHT

From a sketch made in 1785, at the sale of Dr. Samuel Johnson's library.

Georgia will always have the honor of being colonized for the purpose of making a Good Samaritan experiment. Although Oglethorpe's plan for transplanting unfortunates was not very successful, the attempt called the attention of English-speaking peoples to outrageous social wrongs and gradually led to better things.

Summary of Points of Emphasis for Review.—(1) What powers we might have wished if we had been proprietors of a colony, (2) George Calvert and his son, (3) territory granted, (4) difference between a proprietary and a royal colony, (5) powers given the proprietor, (6) rights of the people, (7) new aim of the colony, (8) position of Catholics in England, (9) settlement at St. Marys, (10) what the Indians taught, (11) toleration, (12) what the colony raised, (13) how Maryland resembled Virginia, (14) the Carolina grant, (15) aim of its proprietors, (16) Locke's Fundamental Constitutions, (17) opposition of the colonists, (18) Locke's modern idea, (19) division of Carolina into two royal colonies, (20) Charleston, (21) Oglethorpe and debtors' prisons, (22) why Georgia was called "a half philanthropic and half military" colony, (23) settlement at Savannah, (24) two unusual prohibitions, (25) military success of the colony, (26) dissatisfaction of colonists, (27) change into royal colony, (28) why the purpose of the Georgia colony is honored.

Activities.—In twenty-five words state the difference between a "proprietary" and a "charter" colony.

Find a similarity in the reasons for founding Maryland and Rhode Island. Was toleration one of the objects for founding either Virginia or Massachusetts? Was it practiced in either colony?

If you could to-day be made proprietor of an unsettled colony resembling Maryland, write in one hundred words the chief things that you would do.

Locke thought that government existed chiefly to make laws for the preservation of property. Make a list of the activities of your city, town, or county, that are not for the direct preservation of property. Make another list of similar activities of your state and of the nation. Why was Locke's constitution un-American?

What is a philanthropist? Was Oglethorpe one? Make a list of philanthropists that you know personally; another list of philanthropists of whom you have heard or read.

Ask your teacher to read to you Oglethorpe's *Designs of the Trustees for Establishing the Colony of Georgia*, in Hart, *Am. Hist. Told by Contemporaries*, II., 110–114. Then write one hundred words on the reason for the colonization of Georgia.

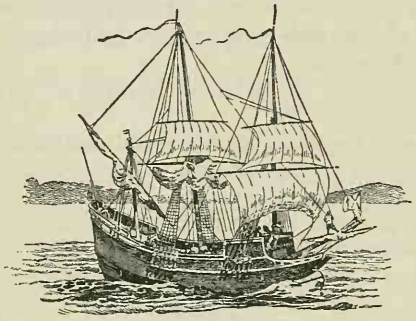
References for Teachers.—Channing, *Hist. of the U. S.*, I., 14–30, 241–270, II., 363–365; Johnston, *Pioneers of the Old South* (Chron. of Am.) 116–156, 199–211, 232-244; Eggleston, *Beginners of a Nation*, 220–265; Andrews, *Colonial Self-Government*, 129–161, 232–251; Greene, *Foundations of Am. Nationality*, 67–74, 133–143, 311–317; *Provincial America*, 249–269; Fiske, *Old Virginia and Her Neighbors*, II., 255–318; Thwaites, *The Colonies*, 81–95, 258–263.

For Pupils.—Southworth, *Builders of Our Country*, I., 179–186, 197–200; Hart, *Colonial Children*, 143, 144, 155–157; Eggleston, *Our First Century*, 115–128; Foote and Skinner, *Explorers and Founders*, 219–224, 235–242; Otis, *Calvert of Maryland* (fiction).

CHAPTER VIII

THE MIDDLE COLONIES

Dutch exploration and colonization.—Henry Hudson, an English captain employed by the Dutch East India Company, sailed up the river that now bears his name (1609). He was searching for a short passage to China, but he found something better. Dutch traders followed him to the Hudson the very next year and also explored the adjacent regions.



HUDSON'S SHIP, THE HALF MOON

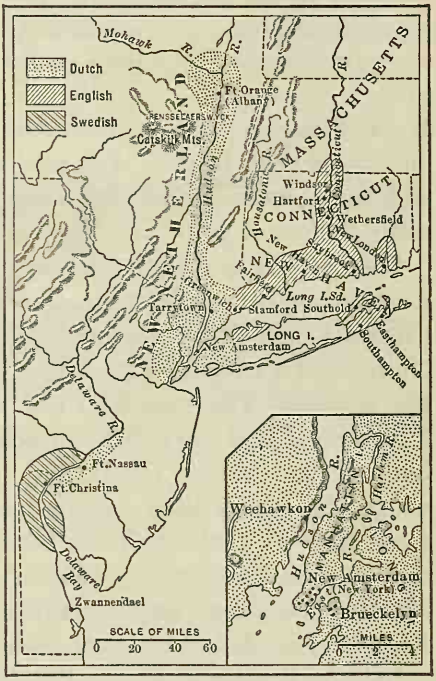
From the replica in the Hudson-Fulton Celebration, 1909. This ship was 58 feet long, 16 feet wide, and could float in water only 8½ feet deep.

This new Dutch territory was named New Netherland in honor of the mother country, which was called Netherlands or Holland. At one time or another, the Dutch claimed for New Netherland all of Connecticut, most of Rhode Island, the western half of the rest of New England, the eastern part of New York, New Jersey, and Delaware. When the Puritans settled at Hartford (p. 86), they found a Dutch trading fort there but paid no attention to it, except to erect a fort at Saybrook to close the Connecticut River to Dutch ships. A treaty between the Dutch and the English (1650) fixed the eastern boundary of New Netherland nearly along the line of the present western boundaries of Connecticut and Massachusetts. The Swedes planted a colony in Delaware (1638), which the Dutch seized (1655).

Chief aim of the Dutch.—The Dutch had religious toleration at home. Their chief aim in coming to America was trade.

The year after the Pilgrims went to Plymouth, the Dutch West India Company was chartered to monopolize the trade and appoint the officers of New Netherland.

Furs were the most valuable article of trade. The region bordering on the Hudson and Mohawk rivers was rich in fur-bearing animals. Beavers, squirrels, and foxes abounded. Furs were in such great demand in Europe that the Dutch made special friends of the Iroquois Indians and promised to buy regularly all their furs. In order to be near the Indians of the interior, the Dutch established a trading post on the site of Albany, New York, where the trails from the Mohawk River met those from the north and east.



NEW NETHERLAND

The most important trading post of the Dutch was Manhattan Island, which was the natural center of all their trade by land and sea. One of the greatest real-estate bargains recorded in history was the purchase of Manhattan Island (1626) from the Indians for articles worth twenty-four dollars. This island lies at the head of the finest harbor on the coast. The Dutch soon thought they had the oyster lying between the two shells which the English owned. The town which grew up on this island was called New Amsterdam, in honor of Amsterdam, the chief city of the Netherlands.

Settlers.—The Dutch knew that permanent settlers would help trade. The charter of the Dutch West India Company called for "the peopling of those fruitful and unsettled parts."

The established mark of Ponitarannackhyne. The established mark of Sey Sey. The established mark of Sipento.

INDIAN SIGNATURES TO A DEED FOR PART OF THE SITE OF BROOKLYN, ON LONG ISLAND

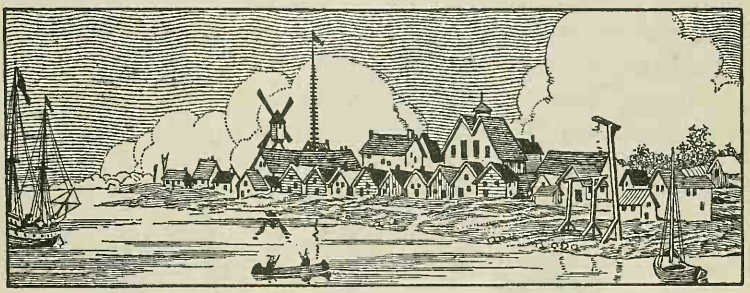
It was then easy, as it has been ever since, to get people to live on Manhattan Island. Fur traders, merchants, shipwrights, and sailors made their homes there, but it was much harder to settle the country.

The Dutch especially wished to people the region along their most important trade route, the Hudson. The West India Company offered any member who brought fifty settlers to New Netherland a landed estate with a frontage of sixteen miles on the Hudson. The men who had such an estate were called "patroons," and they were in some respects like the feudal lords in the days of Sir Walter Scott's *Ivanhoe*. They were obliged to furnish their tenants with land, farm animals, and tools, and with a minister and a schoolmaster. The most influential of these patroons was Killian van Rensselaer (rĕn'se-ler), whose territory, as large as two modern counties, was called Rensselaerswyck and included the site of Albany.

Irving's Knickerbockers.—The genius of Washington Irving has made the Dutch colonization of New York seem the most romantic period of American history. Since Irving's time the name "Knickerbockers" has been applied to the Dutch settlers. This comes from Diedrich Knickerbocker, whom Irving feigned to be the author of his own remarkable *History of New York* (1809), which is partly history and partly humorous fiction.

Irving tells us how honest the Dutch were in weighing the Indian's furs, a Dutchman's hand always weighing one pound and his foot twice as much, and how no bundle of furs ever

weighed more than two pounds. He gives us to understand that the pipe was " the great organ of reflection and deliberation of the New Netherlander," and that Dutch time was reckoned not by hours but by the period consumed in smoking a pipe, Hartford, Connecticut, being two hundred pipes distant. He takes us to a tea party attended by " the higher classes or noblesse, that is to say, such as kept their own cows and drove their own wagons." At this gathering we can see the damsels knitting their woolen stockings and the vrouws (housewives) serving big apple pies, bushels of doughnuts, and fat cups of tea.



NEW AMSTERDAM IN 1655

From Visscher's map of New Netherland. Note the church (the tallest building), the windmill, and the two Indians in a canoe.

Irving's work almost conferred the title of nobility on the descendants of the Knickerbockers. While most of his portraits are humorous caricatures, there is often a vivid element of truth in them. He thus presents, for instance, the last and greatest governor of New Netherland, Peter Stuyvesant (stī′vĕ-sȧnt), who was "universally called Hardkoppig Piet, or Peter the Headstrong, a great compliment to the strength of his understanding." Without Irving's work, New York's early history would lose much of its romance.

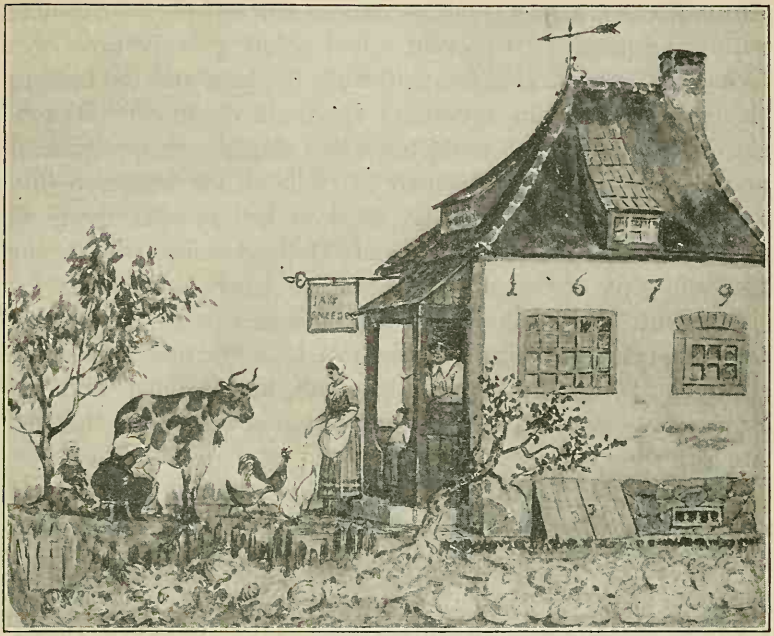
The English seize New Netherland.—The English government had long disliked to have a foreign colony divide their northern from their southern colonies. The English occupation of New Netherland was desired for the further reason that it

would cripple Holland, then England's greatest commercial rival. The English thought that this territory naturally belonged to them (1) since Cabot (p. 28) had discovered it, and (2) since Henry Hudson, who showed it to the Dutch, was an Englishman. When they remembered that Cabot was an Italian, they decided that it was dangerous to press the second argument. In 1664, when the two countries were at peace, Charles II sent over a fleet that captured New Amsterdam. The rest of New Netherland also fell into the hands of the English, so that by the end of 1664 they held the Atlantic coast from Maine to Carolina.

New Netherland was taken without bloodshed. There were several reasons why no resistance was made. In the first place, the population of the city was only 1600, and many of this number were not Dutch. Visitors said that as many as eighteen dif-

GOVERNOR STUYVESANT TORE UP THE FIRST SUMMONS OF THE ENGLISH FLEET TO SURRENDER

He ordered the Dutch troops to prepare for battle; but he finally yielded to a petition of the people to give up the town and avoid useless bloodshed. In the picture, notice Stuyvesant's wooden leg, which he wore in place of a leg he had lost in war.



A Cottage in Early New York

From a float in the Hudson-Fulton Celebration, 1909. In the yard the wife is feeding the chickens and a stout girl is milking the cow. The door, in Dutch style, is in two parts; the upper part is open.

ferent languages were then spoken on Manhattan Island, which has ever since been noted for the variety of its foreign population. Secondly, the Dutch West India Company was selfish, and it had not allowed sufficient self-government to make the people fond of its rule. Thirdly, the Dutch and the English were largely of the same race and looked at things in much the same way.

Influence of the Dutch.—The Dutch people gave the Pilgrims an asylum when England would not tolerate them. In the darkest days before the colonization of America, Holland was the only nation that upheld the torch of religious liberty. In the first part of the seventeenth century no book could be printed in England without the permission of the church and government.

Any unlicensed person would have been sent to prison for owning a printing press. To prevent secret printing, every press was locked up after working hours because the king and the bishops thought it more dangerous than dynamite would now be considered. Books which freely expressed thought on government and religion had to be printed in Holland and smuggled into England. The Pilgrim, William Brewster, printed books in Leyden for his brethren in England. Holland helped educate the English people among whom were future American colonists.

The Dutch were industrious, reliable, and enterprising enough to be the first to colonize Manhattan Island, the most important point on the Atlantic coast. The fact that Holland, and not France, was the first to occupy this region may have changed America's history.

Dutch influence came to New England with the Pilgrims. It molded the early settlements in New Netherland. The mother of the founder of Pennsylvania was a Dutch woman, as we shall see later in this chapter. The descendants of the Dutch continue to influence the nation. Theodore Roosevelt (rō′zē-vĕlt), the twenty-sixth President of the United States, was one of them.

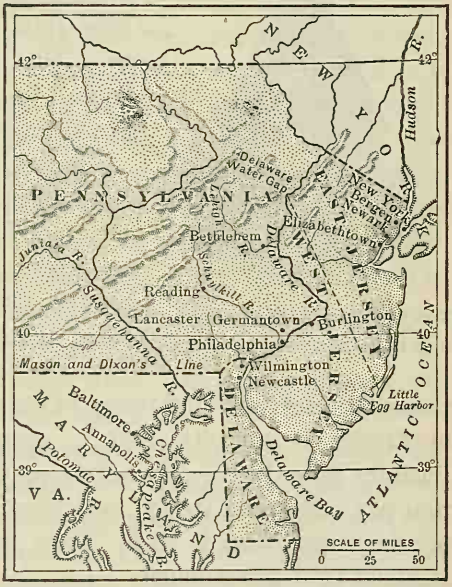
New York under English rule.—The English changed the name of New Amsterdam to New York, in honor of James, Duke of York, who was the proprietor of New Netherland under a grant from his brother, King Charles II.

The charter given the Duke of York allowed him to make all the laws. The "Duke's Laws," as they were called, gave the management of the colony to the governor and his own council and ignored the people.

The colonists soon clamored for the greater privileges of New England and were allowed to elect an assembly which had a voice in making the laws. Thomas Dongan, appointed governor of the colony, gave it a Charter of Liberties (1683), which declared that no taxes should be levied without the consent of the assembly; but the Duke of York took away this privilege when he

ascended the throne as James II (1685). After he was dethroned (p. 92), Jacob Leisler (līs'ler), a patriotic colonist of German birth, took charge of the province of New York and summoned the first intercolonial congress to consider joint action against the French and Indians. Leisler was executed for treason because he resisted a royal officer of whose authority he was doubtful. The assembly of New York later paid an indemnity to his heirs. New York remained a royal colony until the Revolution.

New Jersey.—After New Netherland was taken by the English, the Duke of York gave two of his friends—Lord Berkeley and Sir George Car'teret—that part of it lying between the lower Hudson and the Delaware River. This tract was called New Jersey because one of these friends (Carteret) had been governor of the Isle of Jersey in the English Channel. In a short time some Quakers bought (1674) Berkeley's share, which was called West Jersey. A few years later Carteret died (1680), and his part, known as East Jersey, was also sold (1682) to Quakers and Scotch Presbyterians. At the beginning of the next century (1702) all of New Jersey became one royal colony and remained such until the Revolution.

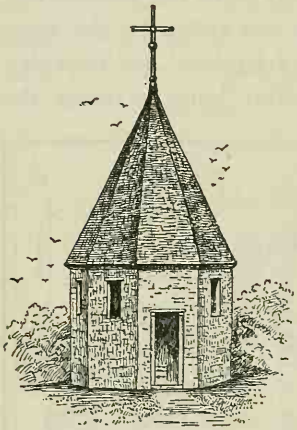


THE JERSEYS, EASTERN PENNSYLVANIA, AND DELAWARE

Why New Jersey was colonized.—The Dutch were the first Europeans to settle on the west bank of the Hudson at its

mouth. Berkeley and Carteret next tried to colonize this region. They could profit from their gift of land only by selling it to colonists. They made a promise, called "Concessions," to tempt settlers to come. The most attractive part of this promise was the offer of religious freedom to all Christian sects.

We have seen that the Pilgrims and the Puritans had come to Massachusetts, and the Catholics to Maryland, largely because of the hope of religious freedom. The Friends or Quakers, as they were called, were fined and imprisoned in England at this time when they met for worship. Many of them came to New Jersey to escape such persecution. One of the newcomers said that he had just been released from eight years' imprisonment for his religion.



First Church in New Jersey
Built by the Dutch at Bergen in 1680.

Charles II tried to force Scotch Presbyterians, called "Covenanters," to accept the Episcopal Church. He and his successor, James II, had them hunted like wild beasts. Some of these Presbyterians, when caught, were shot or drowned. Numbers of those who escaped found refuge in East Jersey. Some Huguenots, or French Protestants, came to escape oppression in France. Puritans from the New Haven colony, disappointed at its annexation to Connecticut (p. 87), settled at Newark and in the region not far from Newark Bay. They established there the New England town government.

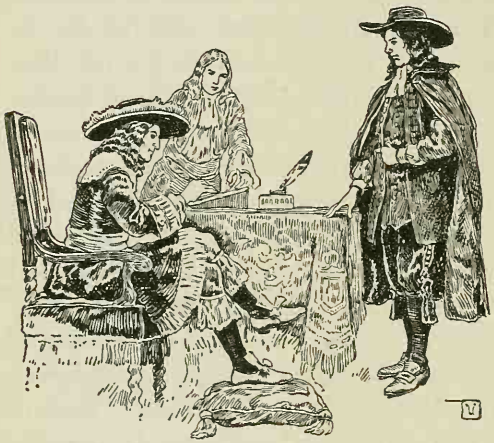
We thus see what a large part religious persecution played in the colonization of New Jersey. We must next turn our attention to the reason for the founding of another great American colony, west of New Jersey.

William Penn, Quaker colonizer (1644–1716).—William Penn's father was a wealthy English admiral; his mother was Dutch.

He distressed his father by becoming a Quaker, and he was dismissed from Oxford University for refusing to wear a surplice in chapel and for helping to tear surplices from other students. The Quaker religion sprang from the Puritan belief in the right of the individual to determine his own religious doctrine, but the Quakers went to an extreme that shocked the Puritan. They rejected baptism, the communion, and all church ceremony. They refused to pay any tax to support the Church of England. They were moral and law-abiding; but they believed in the abolition of war, and refused to serve as soldiers. Later, they were among the first to oppose slavery. The keynote of Quaker character was simplicity—plainness in speech, manner, dress, and church service. The Quaker believed in the everyday practice of the Sermon on the Mount. That Sermon said, "Swear not at all"; so the Quaker refused to take oath in court. He would not recognize differences of rank among mere mortals, and he wore his hat in the presence of judges, nobles, and kings. He discarded the word "you," which he thought was a polite expression to please human vanity, and he regularly said "thee" and "thou," terms that in those days were ordinarily used in speaking to servants. "You may 'thee' and 'thou' whom you please, except the king, the Duke of York, and myself," said the elder Penn to his son. The youth would make no exceptions, and the father drove him out of his house.

The younger Penn became a teacher and preacher among the Quakers. He was soon arrested for speaking at a Quaker meeting. The judge fined him for wearing his hat in court and also sentenced him to jail. The elder Penn used his influence to get his son released, and secured a promise from the English king, Charles II, and from his brother, James Duke of York, to be friends to the youth. When the elder Penn died not long after this, Charles II owed him £16,000. Some time after another prison experience, the younger Penn determined to try to get in America a safe refuge for Quakers and for others persecuted on account of their religion. He had already had experience

in buying tracts of land for such a purpose in New Jersey, and he had learned that it would be necessary for him to secure the right to govern the colony as well as to own the land. Trouble had resulted in New Jersey because the proprietors had not been given the right to govern the territory which they received. Penn offered to cancel the royal debt in return for a region in which to plant a colony in America. Charles II welcomed the offer and gave Penn the right to colonize and govern a tract of land nearly as large as England.



KING CHARLES II AND WILLIAM PENN

Pennsylvania and Delaware.— William Penn received in 1681 from Charles II a grant of some forty thousand square miles west of the Delaware River. This tract was called Pennsylvania (Penn's forest). The next year the Duke of York added Delaware to this tract. Delaware was allowed to have its own legislature (1704), but it had the same governor as Pennsylvania until the Revolution, after which it became a separate state. These grants to Penn overlapped the earlier grant to Lord Baltimore (p. 97); the resulting dispute between the two proprietors was settled by a compromise boundary (the Mason-Dixon line).

Like Maryland, Pennsylvania was a proprietary colony, and, with the exception of two years, it remained under the control of Penn and his descendants until the Revolution. Penn had the right to make the laws "with the advice, assent, and approbation of the Freemen of the said Countrey, or the greater parte of them, or of their Delegates or Deputies." These laws had to be

sent to England for approval within five years, but the shrewd colonists discovered that nothing forbade them to enjoy a desired law for nearly five years and then, if it was not allowed by England, to make a similar law for another like period. The king agreed not to tax Pennsylvania unless he had the consent of the proprietor or of the colonial representatives of the people or unless an act of Parliament gave permission.

Settlement at Philadelphia.—Penn sent over a shipload of colonists in 1681. He came himself the next year with about a hundred more colonists, mostly Quakers, and founded Philadelphia, a name which means "brotherly love." The good location of the city and the foresight which Penn showed in planning its streets and homes, caused it soon to become the largest city in the American colonies and to remain such until after the Revolution.

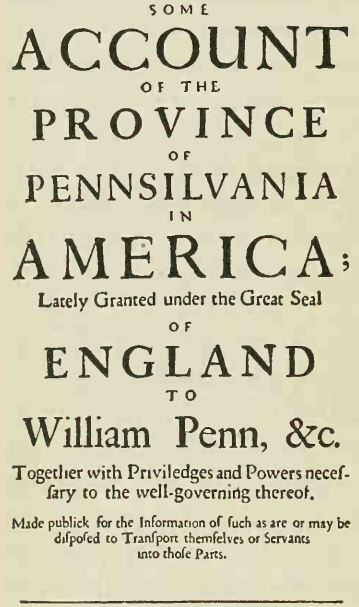
It has been said that the settlement of Philadelphia was like a "summer outing" in comparison with the hardships at Jamestown and Plymouth. Numbers of the early colonists lived in caves on the banks of the Delaware until comfortable homes could be built in Philadelphia. Game was so plentiful that there was no danger of lack of meat. A woman was wondering what she could offer her hungry husband when he returned after his day's work on the house. Just then the cat entered the cave with a fat rabbit. Deer were running over the site of Philadelphia. Wild ducks, geese, and fish abounded in the streams.

Penn's aims.—Penn set forth the first object of his colony in these words: "I do for me and mine declare and establish for the first fundamental of the government of my province, that every person that doth and shall reside there shall have and enjoy the free profession of his or her faith and exercise of worship toward God."

Some of Penn's other aims were: to have children twelve years old taught a useful trade, to make reformatories out of prisons, and to reduce the number of crimes punishable by death to two, murder and treason. His aim in general was to found a colony

where brotherly love and toleration should be active forces in men's lives.

Rapid growth of the colony.—Freedom of worship, liberal government, and opportunity to get good land soon made the colony popular. The fertile soil yielded large crops of corn and wheat, which brought independence to the settlers. Some of the Pennsylvania counties that were early settled by thrifty colonists rank to-day among the best in the United States for the value of farm products.


SOME
ACCOUNT
OF THE
PROVINCE
OF
PENNSILVANIA
IN
AMERICA;
Lately Granted under the Great Seal
OF
ENGLAND
TO
William Penn, &c.
Together with Priviledges and Powers neceſſary to the well-governing thereof.
Made publick for the Information of ſuch as are or may be diſpoſed to Tranſport themſelves or Servants into thoſe Parts.

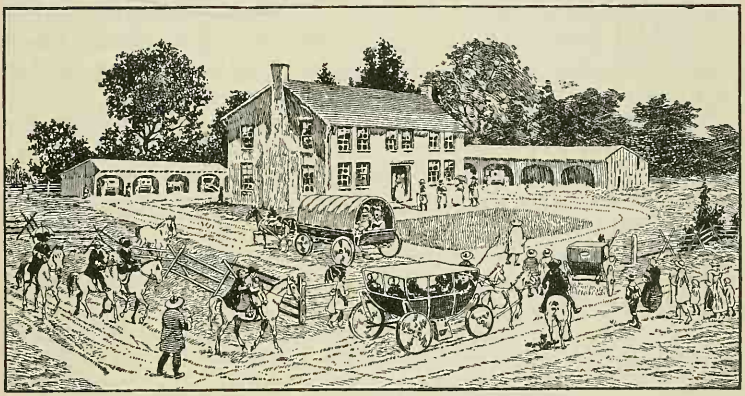
LONDON: Printed, and Sold by *Benjamin Clark* Bookſeller in *George-Yard Lombard-ſtreet*, 1681.

TITLE PAGE OF PENN'S PAMPHLET

The old-fashioned "long s," looking much like f, was in common use, except at the end of a word, until about 1800.

The growth of the colony was more rapid because Penn was an advertiser of great ability. He described the attractions of Pennsylvania in a pamphlet which he had translated into German, French, and Dutch, and widely circulated. Many Germans, tired of war and the misery and poverty which it caused, learned of Pennsylvania in this way and came to find peace and prosperity. Germans belonging to different religious sects also wanted freedom of worship. Twenty or more of these sects came and enjoyed their own form of church worship. Numbers of Scotch-Irish arrived later. They did not have the Quaker dislike of war, but they wanted to be free from the sight of any church that had tyrannized over them in the past. They went to the frontier because they felt more independent there. All these colonists were a thrifty, hard-working, God-fearing set, just the class to make a prosperous commonwealth.

Equal justice for all.—Pennsylvania was colonized more quickly because Penn treated the Indians so justly that the early settlers did not fear to go into the interior. He paid the Indians for their land and made them feel that they would have justice. In case of a dispute between an Indian and a white man, Penn ordered that half of the jury should be Indians. In his famous treaty with the Indians, he said to them: "The English and the Indians must live in love as long as the sun gives light." The



QUAKERS GOING TO MEETING IN PENNSYLVANIA

The Friends, or Quakers, had a religious service on Sunday, but it was very different from the services of other denominations. Men and women sat on opposite sides of the meetinghouse. Part of the time was spent in reverent silence, each Friend waiting for the inspiration to speak. There was no minister to preach a set sermon.

Indians shouted their word for "Amen!" For seventy years the two races lived at peace. If an Indian found white children in danger of being lost in the forest, he would take them to their home. Quaker parents who had to leave their farms for a journey to market often left their children in the care of the Indians.

Equal justice for all, was Penn's motto, and so he protected the Indian and freed his slaves. He willed to one of his faithful negroes "100 acres to be his children's, after he and his wife are dead, forever." Penn wrote: "This is the comfort of the good, that the grave cannot hold them, and that they live as soon as they die."

Summary of Points of Emphasis for Review.—(1) Extent of New Netherland, (2) purpose of Dutch colonization, (3) fur trade and trading posts, (4) settlement, patroons, (5) Irving's Knickerbockers, (6) English occupation of New Netherland, (7) how the Dutch have influenced American history, (8) New York under English rule, (9) New Jersey and its colonization under the English, (10) William Penn and the Quakers, (11) Penn's grant of land and why he received it, (12) the addition of Delaware, (13) the government of Pennsylvania, (14) settlement of Philadelphia compared with that at Jamestown and Plymouth, (15) Penn's aims, (16) cause of rapid colonization, (17) the settlers and their character, (18) treatment of the Indians, (19) Penn's motto.

Activities.—Make a map of the Middle Colonies, showing the principal settlements in 1700. Outline in red the region that the Dutch had claimed.

Explain why the purchase of Manhattan Island is referred to as "one of the greatest real-estate bargains recorded in history."

Read from Washington Irving's *Knickerbocker's History of New York* (Book III., Chap. 3) a description of the streets, parlors, and tea parties in New Amsterdam; also his pen portraits of the Dutch governors (Wouter Van Twiller, Book III., Chap. 2, and Peter Stuyvesant, Book V., Chap. 1).

Make a list of the ways in which the Dutch influenced American history.

Show how religious persecution led to the settlement of New Jersey.

Write a fifty-word essay to explain who the Quakers were. Recall any other reference to them in this book.

What opinion do you imagine each of the following had of William Penn and the Quakers: (1) the Puritan, (2) the Indian, (3) the Episcopalian?

Compare Penn's aims in Pennsylvania with those of Oglethorpe in Georgia.

Write a paragraph, such as Penn might be supposed to have written, advertising his colony.

You have now learned something of the founding of each of the thirteen English colonies. Make a chart showing (a) the location of each colony, (b) by whom it was founded, (c) why it was founded.

References for Teachers.—Goodwin, *Dutch and English on the Hudson* (Chron. of Am.), 1–149; Channing, *Hist. of the U. S.*, I., 438–484, II., 34–62, 203–209, 294–310 (for New Amsterdam and New York); II., 94–126, 313–339 (for Pennsylvania); II., 44–48, 177–185 (for New Jersey); Thwaites, *The Colonies*, 195–217; Fisher, *The Quaker Colonies* (Chron. of Am.), 1–229; Fiske, *Dutch and Quaker Colonies;* Fisher, *The True William Penn;* Hodges, *William Penn;* Earle, *Colonial Days in Old New York.*

For Pupils.—Southworth, *Builders of Our Country*, I., 123–141, 187–196; Eggleston, *Our First Century*, 84–88, 101–105, 129–139; Gordy, *American Leaders and Heroes*, 92–101; Foote and Skinner, *Explorers and Founders*, 168–186, 225–233.

Fiction: Otis, *Stephen of Philadelphia* and *Peter of New Amsterdam:* Kennedy, *Rob of the Bowl;* Bennett, *Barnaby Lee.*

CHAPTER IX

THE STRUGGLE OF ENGLAND AND FRANCE FOR NORTH AMERICA

French colonization.—We have seen (pp. 33–34) that the sixteenth-century attempts of the French to found colonies in Florida and Canada were unsuccessful. Samuel de Champlain (shăm-plān′), a noted French explorer and colonizer, founded the first permanent French settlement on the continent of America at Quebec (1608), the year after the planting of the Jamestown colony. He also founded Montreal three years later.

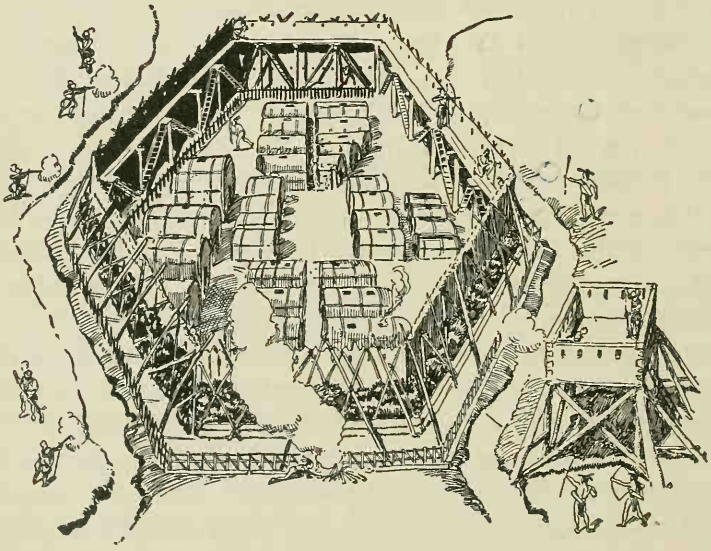
The French settlements in America were called New France. They soon extended along the St. Lawrence River and advanced west and south. Nova Scotia and New Brunswick were called Aca′dia, but they were a part of New France.

Champlain and the Iroquois.—The Iroquois, a league of Indian tribes called the Five Nations,—Mohawks, Oneidas (o-nī′daz), Ononda′gas, Cayu′gas, and Sen′ecas,—lived in the central part of New York, west of the site of Albany. They were farmers as well as hunters, and raised large quantities of Indian corn. They did not live in common wigwams but in long houses built of wood and bark. They were not like ordinary Indians, for they could unite and remain united. They had more influence on American history than any other red men.

During Champlain's first long winter in Quebec, he formed an alliance with Algonquin Indians north of the St. Lawrence River and planned to defeat their enemy, the Iroquois. He and two other white men went with a band of Algonquin warriors southward up the Richelieu (rē-shē-lyû′) River and paddled their canoes out on the lake that now bears Champlain's name. Near Ticondero′ga, they met a band of Iroquois. The Algonquins begged Champlain to use his thunder and lightning, as

they called his firearms. Clad in armor against which the arrows of the Iroquois rattled harmlessly, he stood alone before the astonished savages. He discharged his musket loaded with four balls, which killed two chiefs and wounded a third. Two Frenchmen in ambush also fired a death-dealing volley a moment later, and the Iroquois took to their heels under the belief that their foes had supernatural power. The Algonquins chased them and captured a number of prisoners, whom they kept to torture. In the same year (1609) Henry Hudson and his men, while sailing up the Hudson River (p. 108), treated the Indians in a way that had an important influence on the coming struggle for the mastery of the continent. Hudson made friends of the Iroquois by inviting their chiefs on board his ship the *Half Moon* and entertaining them with the best eatables and grog.

Champlain later (1615) crossed the eastern end of Lake Ontario with a large force of Indians and attacked a fortified



CHAMPLAIN ATTACKING THE IROQUOIS FORTIFIED VILLAGE

Notice, at the right, the platform which Champlain constructed to enable him to fire over the fortification into the village.

village of the Iroquois. He built a movable platform so that he could shoot over the fortification, but his Indians attacked at the wrong time and had to retreat. Champlain was wounded in the knee, and was carried away in a basket. He lost his reputation for supernatural power with the Iroquois, but they kept their hatred for the French.

How the Iroquois affected American history.—The French could have come down the Hudson River and taken New York if it had not been for the Iroquois barrier. The English colonies in New England might then have been separated by a strong power from those farther south. The Iroquois held off the French until those living in the middle colonies could protect themselves.

The Iroquois also made the easiest route west and southwest unsafe for the French fur traders. The French often had to go west to Lake Huron by the Ot'tawa River and connecting waterways and portages instead of by the more convenient route through Lake Ontario and Lake Erie.

The Iroquois transferred to the English the friendship which they had for the Dutch. There were two reasons for this: (1) the memory of how Champlain had treated them, and (2) their geographical situation, which made it natural for them to trade with the English. Some think that the latter was the stronger reason for the loyalty of the Iroquois. It cost the French more to bring articles of trade to Canada than for the English to land the same articles where the Hudson and Mohawk rivers join. The Canadian Indians, therefore, had to give five beaver skins for a musket at Montreal, while the Iroquois could for two such skins get a musket at the English fur-trading station of Albany. In spite of such facts, the French might have easily come down the Hudson River to the sea if the Iroquois had not been strong enough to stop them.

An explorer who was guided by a dream.—The French explorer La Salle (lå sål′, 1643–1687) was born of the same Norman race which gave William the Conqueror (p. 9) to the

world. He went from France to Canada in his early twenties and listened to an Indian story that caused him to dream of making France the greatest nation in the world. He liked Indians, and they admired him. Some Iroquois Indians from western New York fired his imagination by telling him of a mighty river that rose in their land and flowed in a channel marked by the finger of the Great Spirit to a far-off summer sea, where the white man's ships spread their wings. He dreamed of a glorious New France which would own all the lands drained by this river. His life was spent in trying to make this dream come true.

La Salle first went south of Lake Erie to some river that flowed into the Ohio, which he probably descended to the great falls (Louisville, 1669). We find him next building the *Griffin*, a vessel of forty-five tons, on the Niagara River. He and a party of explorers sailed in her to Green Bay, Wisconsin. He loaded the *Griffin* there with a fortune in furs, and bade her captain take them to Canada and return to him at once with the supplies necessary for his trip down the Mississippi. He and his party went by canoes and portage to the Illinois River, where he built a fort while waiting for the return of the *Griffin*. Disappointed because the vessel did not come, he called the fort "Heartbreak" (Crèvecœur, pron. krâv-kûr).

La Salle then made a three months' journey to Montreal, struggling with cold, hunger, and savages, and learned three facts: (1) that the *Griffin* had never been seen after leaving Green Bay, (2) that a ship from France loaded with his goods had been wrecked at the mouth of the St. Lawrence, and (3) that the garrison at his fort on the Illinois had mutinied and destroyed the fort with all its arms and supplies. La Salle was a man of steel or he would have stopped trying to make his dream come true. He went to the Illinois River, hoping to find a faithful remnant of his men, but all had left. He went back to Canada again for men and supplies and again returned to Illinois to complete the exploration of the Mississippi, which Joliet and Marquette (p. 40) had left unfinished.

In 1682, the year in which William Penn came to Pennsylvania, La Salle and his men started down the Mississippi in canoes and reached the Gulf of Mexico. He had the three principal mouths of the river explored to learn whether France could send her ships up it to the interior. La Salle was the first white man to follow the course of the Mississippi from Illinois to the sea and to know that ships could ascend the river.

It was a great moment in the history of the North American continent (April 9, 1682) when La Salle erected at the mouth of the Mississippi a column bearing the French arms. He claimed in the name of the French king (Louis XIV) all the land drained by the Mississippi and the streams flowing into it. This claim covered all the region from the sources of the Ohio on the east to the Rocky Mountains on the west, and from the source of the Mississippi on the north to the Gulf of Mexico on the south. La Salle gave the name of Louisiana to this territory. The region drained by the Great Lakes and the St. Lawrence River had already been called New France. La Salle had done his utmost to make his dream come true. He tried to progress one step farther; he went to France and returned in ships to found a settlement on the Mississippi. They could not find the mouth of the river, which is now marked by lights that every captain on the Gulf knows. La Salle and his colonists were put ashore 400 miles west of the Mississippi, and he was murdered by a few of his men while struggling to return to Canada. So perished at the age of forty-four one of the world's great explorers.

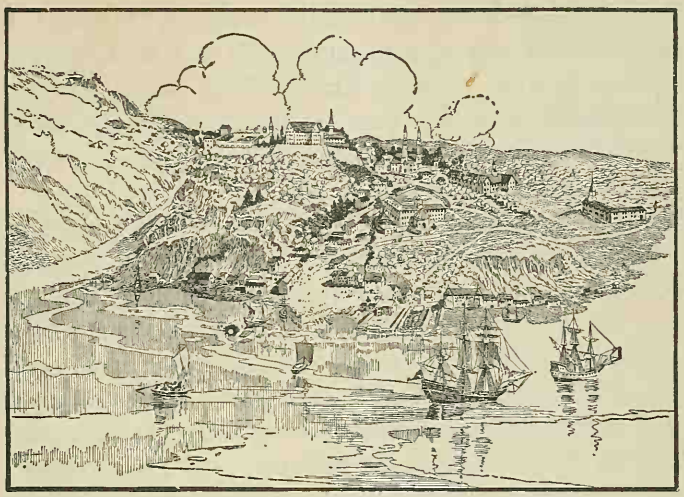
France tries to uphold La Salle's claim.—The French did something more than claim this great central region. They erected throughout it a chain of forts and fur-trading posts, extending from eastern Canada to New Or'leans, which the French founded in 1718. These posts have been likened to "a gigantic letter T, its horizontal bar extending west from the Gulf of St. Lawrence to the head waters of the Saskatchewan, and its stem commanding the entire length of the Mississippi River and its approaches."

The French controlled the great internal waterways of the continent: the St. Lawrence River, the Great Lakes, and the Mississippi with its tributaries. Their territory was greater than that held by the English. We can better understand the coming struggle to possess this continent if we know the difference between the aims and methods of the French and of the English in colonization, government, religion, and treatment of the Indians.

Difference between French and English colonization.—The French were especially attracted by the fur trade, which led to much exploration. Traffic in furs was the most important trade in New France. The greater part of the English colonists were farmers who had homes and many children. Since the most energetic of the French preferred the roving life of the hunter and fur trader, there were fewer women and homes in New France. The coming struggle between the French and English was between two different types of colonies. Most of the area of New France was a colony of traders and trappers, with only a few farmers' homes. The strength of the English colonies was in the homes of the tillers of the soil. Those who have wives and children to protect have the strongest interest in the land where they dwell.

Difference between French and English colonial government.—Louis XIV became king of France in the year when civil war began in England to secure more religious and civil liberty (p. 81). He had the longest reign in European history (1642–1715), and became an almost absolute monarch. The English cut off the head of Charles I for acts much less tyrannical than those of Louis XIV. The greatest progress comes only when men are allowed to think for themselves. Louis XIV recalled a governor of New France for consulting the colonists about the choice of their officials.

Paternalism was a hindrance to the development of New France. This means that the French king governed his colonists as if they had been a group of his children. No tiller of the soil near Montreal was allowed to own more than two horses and one



QUEBEC IN 1703

From an old print. Some of the houses in Quebec are near the water's edge, and some are on top of the bluff.

colt for fear that if he had more horses he would not keep enough cows and sheep. The government, thinking that farmers might be tempted by evil in the city, forbade them to visit Quebec without special permission. The French colonists never voted for their own local officers. They did not hold public meetings, like the New England town meetings, to discuss questions of government. Self-government and self-direction became the keynote of the English colonies. Two different systems of colonial government were thus tested side by side on the same continent.

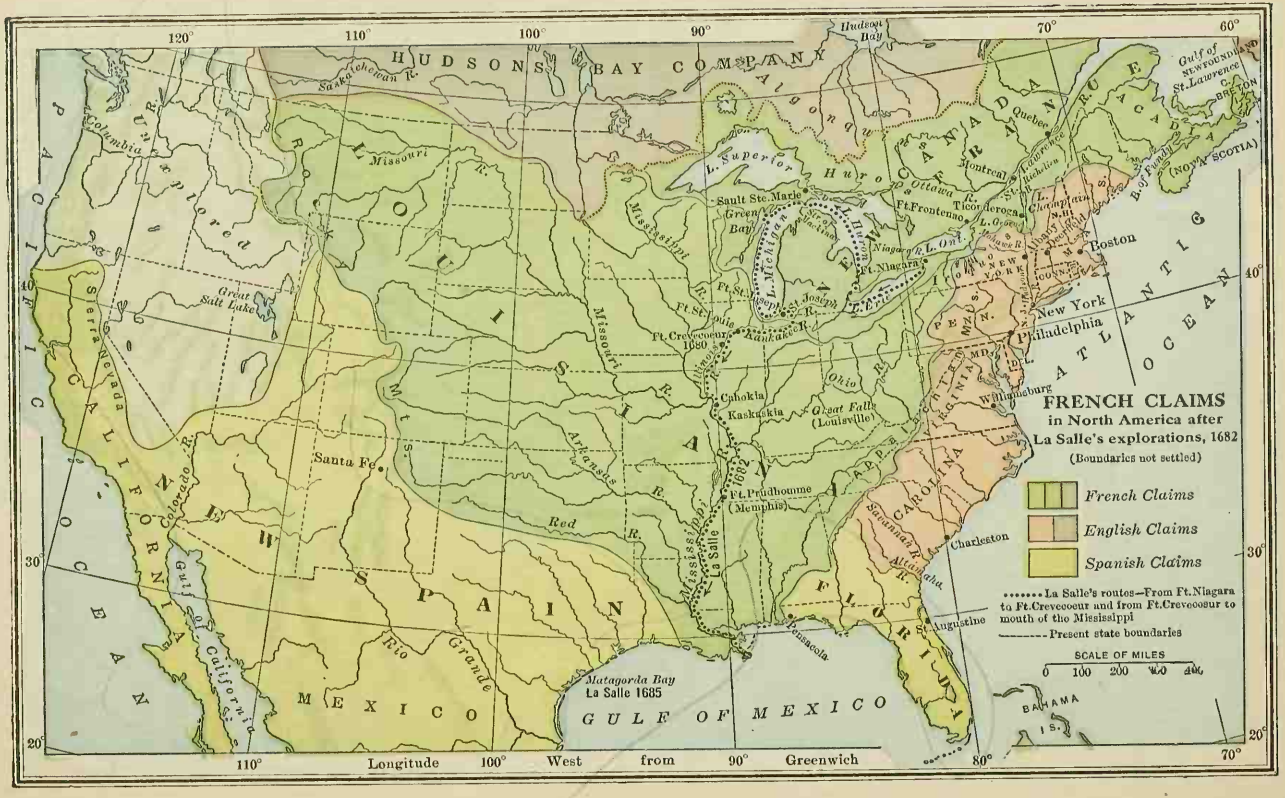
Difference in religion; the French priests.—Louis XIV of France would not allow any Huguenots to settle in his American colony. During his reign perhaps a million of these alert, self-reliant people fled from France to escape persecution. Many of them settled in New York, South Carolina, and Massachusetts, but only Catholics were admitted to New France. In the different English colonies, on the other hand, many religious

sects were found: Protestants and Catholics in Maryland, Episcopalians in Virginia, Congregationalists in New England, and a mixture of almost all in Rhode Island and Pennsylvania. Massachusetts, however, tried to keep out all who were not Congregationalists, and some other colonies tried to be equally intolerant, but they failed in the end.

The French Catholic priests who came to New France spared no effort to convert the Indians. They went to distant and hostile tribes and some were tortured to death, but neither torture nor martyrdom turned them back. Father Marquette (p. 38), one of the most famous of these priests, was both explorer and missionary. The Indians loved him so that when he was sick they became his escort for a ninety-day journey.

How the French treated the Indians.—The French knew how to win the hearts of the red men by sharing their experiences and treating them almost like equals. The Englishman might deal fairly with them, but they felt that he despised them as an inferior race and did not care to associate with them more than was necessary. Frenchmen often spent the entire winter hunting fur-bearing animals with the Indians. Champlain did not think it beneath his dignity to pass a winter in Indian wigwams near Lake Huron. Even Count Fron'tenac (1620?–1698), the greatest governor of New France, joined the Indians in their war dance. He painted his face red, brandished a tomahawk, and delighted the red men with the vigor of his war whoops. One can hardly imagine staid Governor Bradford of the Plymouth colony acting like this. The Indians liked the companionship of the French, and nearly all of them, except the Iroquois, were willing to help them fight the English.

Wars between England and France.—The French king declared war against the English, partly because his enemy, William the Prince of Orange, became king of England (1689) after James II had been driven from the throne. The war between England and France, which affected their American colonies, lasted with a few intervals for three quarters of a


FRENCH CLAIMS
in North America after
La Salle's explorations, 1682
(Boundaries not settled)
French Claims
English Claims
Spanish Claims
La Salle's routes—From Ft. Niagara to Ft. Crevecoeur and from Ft. Crevecoeur to mouth of the Mississippi
Present state boundaries
SCALE OF MILES
0 100 200 300 400
HUDSONS BAY COMPANY
Hudson Bay
Gulf of NEWFOUNDLAND
St. Lawrence
C. BRETON
B. of Fundy
(NOVA SCOTIA)
ACADIA
CANADA
NEW FRANCE
LOUISIANA
NEW SPAIN
CALIFORNIA
PACIFIC OCEAN
ATLANTIC OCEAN
GULF OF MEXICO
MEXICO
FLORIDA
CAROLINA
PENN.
NEW YORK
CONN.
MASS.
VIRGINIA
MD.
DEL.
Quebec
Montreal
Ticonderoga
Ft. Frontenac
Ft. Niagara
Sault Ste. Marie
Green Bay
L. Superior
L. Michigan
L. Huron
L. Erie
L. Ontario
L. Champlain
Albany
Deerfield
Boston
New York
Philadelphia
Williamsburg
Charleston
St. Augustine
Pensacola
Ft. St. Joseph
Ft. St. Louis
Ft. Crevecoeur 1680
Kankakee R.
Cahokia
Kaskaskia
Great Falls (Louisville)
Ft. Prudhomme (Memphis)
La Salle 1682
Matagorda Bay
La Salle 1685
Santa Fe
Great Salt Lake
Sierra Nevada
Columbia R.
Unexplored
Rocky Mts.
Missouri R.
Mississippi R.
Ohio R.
Arkansas R.
Red R.
Rio Grande
Colorado R.
Gulf of California
Saskatchewan R.
Algonquin
Huron
Ottawa R.
Niagara R.
Lawrence R.
Richelieu R.
Mohawk R.
Savannah R.
Altamaha R.
BAHAMA IS.
Longitude West from Greenwich
120°
110°
100°
90°
80°
70°
60°
40°
30°
20°

century (1689–1763). After the fighting had stopped for a while, it several times started again when some move was made which threatened to destroy the balance of power in Europe. Disputes over the succession to the throne in Spain and in Austria, for instance, caused war. Difference in religion helped make England and France hostile to each other. France was Catholic and England, Protestant. France refused (1685) to continue the toleration of her Protestants, or Huguenots, many of whom escaped to England and America. England granted (1689) toleration to all Christians except Catholics and thus increased the enmity between herself and France. Religion may have added to the bitterness of the struggle, but possession of the New World became the goal for which France and England fought.

Three of the wars during this period are known in American history as King William's War, Queen Anne's War, and King George's War, from the names of English rulers. During Queen Anne's War, in 1707, England and Scotland were united under the name of Great Britain. The two countries had had the same king since 1603 (p. 78); but now they gave up their separate Parliaments and elected a single British Parliament instead. The English colonies became the British colonies, but were still usually called English.

Suffering in the English colonies.—Some of the English colonies suffered terribly during the long struggle for the possession of North America. A band of French and Indians massacred the settlers at Schenectady (skĕ-nĕk′tă-dĭ), New York (1690), only a few miles from Albany. A little later many in northern New England were killed or taken captive. A Frenchman led a band of Indians one winter night to Deerfield (1704) in northwestern Massachusetts, where they killed many and then drove 111 captives over the snow toward Canada. The minister of the church and his wife and children were among the captives. When his wife sank from exhaustion, she was tomahawked. Such outrages were repeated so often that Massachusetts finally offered a large reward for any Indian scalp.

COLONISTS ESCAPING FROM THEIR BURNING HOUSE, ATTACKED BY INDIANS

Massachusetts from time to time made expeditions against the French. Her greatest success was the capture of Louisburg (1745), a fortified seaport on Cape Breton Island, which had furnished a base for French privateers in capturing the merchant vessels of New England.

For LONDON,

The Ship Antilope, JOHN GRIFFITHS, *Maſter*,
Mounting 20 *Guns*, *moſt of them*
ſix Pounders, *Men anſwerable*: *Has one half*
of her Loading ready, *and will certainly ſail*
on or before the 15*th* November *next*: *For*
Freight or Paſſage, *agree with ſaid Maſter*,
John Griffiths.

ADVERTISEMENT IN THE WEEKLY NEW YORK POST-BOY, 1746
Note that it was considered necessary for the ship to sail armed.

George Washington begins to play a part in American history. —The most prominent man in the history of our country is George Washington. He was born on a plantation in Virginia

in 1732. Every American knows the day of the month on which he was born, and he is the only American whose birthday is a holiday in all the states of the country.

At sixteen he had received sufficient schooling to enable him to earn his living. He could write well, figure correctly, keep accounts, and survey land accurately. He was then employed as a surveyor in the wildest, uninhabited parts of Virginia. He slept in the open air, wrapped in a bearskin. He cut wood, built fires, shot game, and cooked it. Indians came and danced a war dance, shaking a human scalp before his eyes. In these years he became so skilled in woodcraft as to play an important part in the coming war with the French and Indians.

The British had already expanded to the Appalachian Mountains and were trying to pass beyond into territory claimed by the French. Lawrence, a half brother of George Washington, was one of a number who formed an association, known as the Ohio Company, to trade in furs and found settlements in the upper Ohio valley. Since the French were threatening to drive any British settlers out of this territory, the governor of Virginia sent a man on the long journey to protest and to learn the intentions of the French (1753). This man soon returned and gave reasons why the trip was impossible. Washington was then sent. He had hairbreadth escapes from hostile Indians.

WASHINGTON ON HIS WAY TO WARN THE FRENCH OUT OF THE OHIO VALLEY

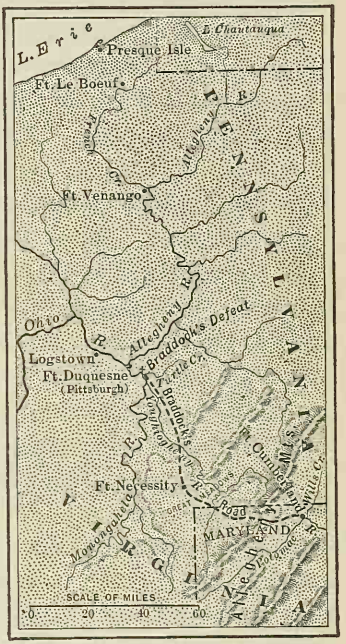
He was accompanied by a frontiersman named Christopher Gist. The journey was made partly on horseback and partly on foot.

He was almost drowned while crossing the freezing Allegheny River. He suffered from hunger and bitter cold, but he delivered the letter and brought back the defiance of the French governor. The excellent account of his journey which he prepared was made a government report.

Efforts to unite the colonies; the Albany Plan of Union.— There were many more British than French colonists in America, but this difference in numbers amounted to less because the French were united while the British were not. Strange as it may seem, the thirteen American colonies had not by the middle of the eighteenth century (except for a brief period in New England, p. 88) formed as close a union as the five tribes of Iroquois Indians. The colonists were stretched along a vast extent of coast. There were few roads, and the streams were mostly without bridges. The people in the different colonies often did not know or care much what those at a distance were doing. Some of the British colonies refused to send men to help others in danger. The Quakers who were in control of Pennsylvania did not believe in war even when their own colony was attacked. An historian says: "Philadelphians had seen the grim spectacle of a wagonload of corpses brought by mourning friends and relatives of the dead and laid down at the door of the Assembly to show the pacifist legislators what was really happening."

The danger from the French roused some British officials to ask that delegates be sent from the different colonies to meet at Albany, New York, in 1754. Here, Franklin proposed what has been known as the Albany Plan of Union. Under this the king was to appoint a president-general of all the colonies and the colonists were to elect a grand council. The official representing the king and the body elected to speak for the colonies were to have power to raise taxes and make war. This plan was not adopted, but it is important as one of a series of attempts that were necessary to educate the colonists to see the necessity of union.

Beginning of the French and Indian War.—The French and Indian War began in an attempt to secure the gateway of the Ohio valley. The British colonists wished to go farther west, both to get furs and to settle. The Ohio Company, which was interested in extending trade and colonization westward, built a fort on the site of Pittsburgh. The French said that La Salle's discovery (p. 127) gave them the right to this land since its streams ran into the Mississippi. They destroyed the British fort and built one of their own named Fort Duquesne (dōō-kān′).



WHERE THE FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR BEGAN (1754)

George Washington was sent to dislodge the French, but he found them so strong at Great Meadows in southwestern Pennsylvania that he had to surrender his hastily built Fort Necessity; but he was allowed to return to Virginia with his men. This first contest for the "Gateway of the West" was won by the French (1754).

Braddock's Defeat.—The British government wished to protect the colonists, and sent over an army under General Braddock. He knew nothing about Indian fighting, and would not listen to George Washington, who was assisting him with Virginia militia. Braddock's army, marching in mass, was surrounded near Fort Duquesne and cut to pieces by a much smaller force of Indians and French who poured their deadly fire from behind trees and bushes. Braddock was killed, and Washington, who did his utmost to rally the men, had four bullet holes in his coat but escaped unhurt. The British forces became the

laughingstock of Europe and America. Since then, many civilized nations have done the Indians the honor of adopting their protected style of fighting. The second contest for the "Gateway of the West" (1755), like the first, was won by the French.

The year of Braddock's defeat saw one British victory, in the battle of Lake George in northeastern New York. This success was due to Sir William Johnson, who was superintendent of the Iroquois and their allies. He had proved the equal of any Frenchman in dealing with the Indians. When the Iroquois complained to him that if they found a bear in a tree, some white man would claim the tree and keep them from shooting the bear, he gave them presents and took a detachment of them with New York militia to Lake George to fight the French. After the British victory, the French commander wrote: "I owe this misfortune to the Iroquois." They had scared his own Indians away and helped the brave American militia to win the battle.

Other French successes.—For three years (1755, 1756, 1757) the British commanders showed how poor they were. They lost Fort William Henry at the south end of Lake George. The massacre there after the surrender of the British is vividly described in *The Last of the Mohicans* by James Fenimore Cooper. In the early years of this war it seemed as if the control of North America would pass to the French.

The expulsion of the French Acadians.—One of the most pathetic events of the French and Indian War was the expulsion of nearly seven thousand French from that part of Acadia lying on the east side of the Bay of Fundy (now Nova Scotia). The British had taken this territory from France in Queen Anne's War (p. 131) and had held it for more than forty years, but they had allowed the Acadians freedom to worship as Catholics and to do very much as they chose. The struggle between France and Great Britain became so desperate that the Acadians were ordered to take the oath of allegiance to Great Britain. The poor creatures were between two millstones. If they took the oath, they feared destruction by the French and Indians. The

Acadians said that they would remain neutral but could not take the oath. The British feared that they would help the French. A British army loaded the Acadians on vessels and scattered most of them along the coast from Maine to Georgia. Some were taken to Europe. Many died from exposure and hunger. Some found their way back to Acadia after the war. In the poem, *Evangeline*, the American poet, Henry W. Longfellow, has made the deportation of the Acadians one of the best known incidents of the French and Indian War.

How Great Britain finally won the victory.—British generals had for some time been given their positions through favoritism or by paying money for them. These methods of selecting generals changed when William Pitt, an honest, enthusiastic patriot, entered the British cabinet and became minister of war. France was also at war with Prussia, whose forces were led by Frederick the Great, one of the world's great generals. Pitt himself showed good generalship in sending money to Frederick, who used it so wisely that the French had to send most of their available troops to fight him.

When good British generals selected by Pitt reached America, the tables were quickly turned. The colonists, cheered by the knowledge that Pitt was in power, raised more troops to help turn the scale against France. Fort Duquesne and other important French forts necessary to the control of the interior were taken by the British. After having been defeated at Fort Ticonderoga on Lake Champlain (1758), the British captured this fort (1759) and opened the way to Canada.

The year 1759 saw the capable French general, Montcalm′, making a final stand at Quebec to save New France. That city was thought to be safe on its rocky heights. General James Wolfe, a heroic young English commander, aided by the British fleet, vainly tried for months to capture it. Finally, one dark night forty-five hundred of his men clambered up the side of the hill to the Plains of Abraham on the exposed side of Quebec. Montcalm, taken completely by surprise, came out and fought

WOLFE'S ARMY CLIMBING THE BLUFF TO ATTACK QUEBEC

in the open field. This was the first North American battle fought in the open by the French. France was conquered in that decisive contest for the possession of America. Both Montcalm and Wolfe were killed. Spain then vainly came to the assistance of France, but her entry into the struggle only caused her to lose territory to Great Britain.

The result of the French and Indian War.—The treaty of peace between Great Britain and France (known as the Peace of Paris, 1763) gave to the British, Canada and all the region east of the Mississippi except New Orleans. Great Britain had taken from Spain during this war Cuba and the Philippine Islands. Both of these were now returned to Spain in exchange for Florida. Since Spain had engaged in the war to assist France, the French repaid her for the loss of Florida by giving her New Orleans and all the French possessions west of the Mississippi. From her vast North American colonial territory, France retained only two very small islands near the south coast of Newfoundland, and some small islands in the West Indies.

The French and Indian War decided that all the region east of the Mississippi should be occupied by a race that believed in self-government, in free assemblies, in freedom of religious

belief, and in having many homes rather than a few forts to guard the land. This war, therefore, resulted in something more than mere transfer of territory; it extended civil and religious liberty; it resulted in a land of homes; it taught the colonies to coöperate with each other; and it lessened their dependence on Great Britain because they were now free from French attack.

How Great Britain and Spain Divided North America (1763)

At the beginning of this long struggle in 1689, Great Britain was hardly more than a second-rate power. At the close of the contest, she was the greatest colonial power on the globe. During this period she had also laid the foundation of her empire in India.

Summary of Points of Emphasis for Review.—(1) Location of New France, (2) how Champlain made enemies of the Iroquois, (3) influence of the Iroquois on American history, (4) La Salle's exploration and the territory which he claimed for France, (5) how France tried to uphold La Salle's claim, (6) difference in French and English exploration and colonization, (7) difference in French and English ideas of government, (8) paternalism in New France, (9) religion, the French priests, (10) French treatment of the Indians, (11) wars between France and England and their causes, (12) French and Indian raids on the English colonies, (13) appearance of George Washington on the stage of history, (14) the Albany Plan of Union, (15) how the French and Indian War started, (16) the first two contests for the "Gateway of the West," (17) Sir William Johnson and the Iroquois, (18) why French success seemed probable, (19) the French Acadians, (20) how William Pitt turned the tide, (21) Montcalm and Wolfe, (22) terms of Peace of Paris, (23) Great Britain's position in 1763.

Activities.—Draw a map of North America, outlining in red the parts which the French claimed and in another color, the British colonies. Indicate on this map the big T referred to in the text, and locate the Iroquois Indians.

Talk for three minutes on the Iroquois Indians and their effect upon American history. Illustrate your talk by the above map.

Compare La Salle with De Soto or with some other explorer of your choice. Trace La Salle's route on the map and tell the story of the expedition as he might have related it. Ask your teacher to read to you *La Salle's Exploration of the Mississippi* (1682) by one of the members of his expedition, in Hart's *American History Told by Contemporaries*, I., 140–144, or in James's *Readings from American History*, 92–96.

Recall others who explored the Mississippi.

Give in three minutes a comparison between the government and life of the French and of the English in America.

If you had been an Indian, which side would you probably have favored and why?

Imagine yourself to be George Washington and give an account of Braddock's defeat.

Read aloud in class the account of the massacre at Fort William Henry in Cooper's *Last of the Mohicans.*

Select for class reading any thirty lines of Longfellow's *Evangeline* which you think best show the character of the Acadians and what happened to them at the time of the expulsion.

Explain why the capture of Quebec was one of the important events in North American history.

Draw a map showing all British possessions in the Western Hemisphere in 1763. Outline in red the territory taken from France.

References for Teachers.—Greene, *Foundations of Am. Nationality*, 207–225, 357–386; Wrong, *The Conquest of New France* (Chron. of Am.); Channing, *Hist. of the U. S.*, I., 90–110, II., 527–599; Thwaites, *France in America;* Fiske, *New France and New England*, 1–132, 233–359; Thwaites, *Colonies*, 32–36, 246–257; Parkman, *The Pioneers of France in the New World; La Salle and the Discovery of the Great West; A Half Century of Conflict; Montcalm and Wolfe;* Hart, *Am. Hist. Told by Contemporaries*, I., 102–144, II., 312–326, 352–372.

For Pupils.—Parkman, *Struggle for a Continent* (edited by P. Edgar), 1–459; Hasbrouck, *Boys' Parkman*, VII.–X.; Eggleston, *Our First Century*, 160–170; Higginson, *Young Folks' Book of American Explorers*, 269–278; Hart, *Camps and Firesides of the Revolution*, 138–150; Hawthorne, *Grandfather's Chair*, VII.–IX.; Tappan, *American Hero Stories*, 49–58, 117–135; Foote and Skinner, *Explorers and Founders*, 187–218, 274–295; Gordy, *American Leaders and Heroes*, 103–144.

Fiction: Cooper, *The Last of the Mohicans;* Henty, *With Wolfe in Canada;* Catherwood, *Story of Tonty:* Craddock, *Story of Old Fort Loudon.*

5.

CHAPTER X

LIFE IN THE COLONIES

Where the colonists settled.—The inhabitants of the thirteen colonies lived in a very small part of what is to-day the United States. Most of them had settled on the narrow strip of land that extended along the Atlantic or was reached by rivers flowing into it. It was necessary that people should live near the sea or a river because water furnished the only easy means of travel.

How the colonists earned their living.—Nine tenths of the colonists made their living in whole or in part by tilling the soil. Colonial farming developed ingenuity and self-reliance. Every farmer had to be a carpenter, blacksmith, tanner, shoemaker, maker of harness and of farm implements. There was little used in daily life, except edged tools, salt, lead, and powder, which the farmer did not make.

Fishermen, sailors, and merchants often spent part of their time in raising their food on their own land. Free rich land brought more people to America than any other cause. Indian corn, unknown in Europe, was long the most important crop. The Indian should have a monument for giving this new grain to the colonist. As the New England boy dropped five kernels of Indian corn in a hill, he sometimes sang:

> "One for the bug,
> One for the crow,
> One to rot,
> And two to grow."

Next to corn, the chief crops were wheat and tobacco.

Outside of farming, some made a living by the fur trade with the Indians. Others caught fish and prepared them for sale. When no farm work was to be done, the forests gave employment

to many farmers in making lumber and barrel staves. There was a profitable triangular trade from New England to Africa and to the West Indies. Salt fish, barrels, and lumber were taken to the West Indies, and molasses was brought back. The New Englanders made this into rum, which was carried to Africa and exchanged for slaves to be sold in the West Indies.

The British bought from the colonies tobacco, vessels ready built, and materials for shipbuilding, such as masts, timber, planks, tar, pitch, and turpentine. In one year the colonies sent Great Britain three million feet of plank and boards and six million barrel staves, but the West Indies sometimes bought in twelve months eleven million staves, thirty-eight million shingles, and thirty-five million feet of boards. To help New England supply

For SOUTH CAROLINA,
The Ship AMHERST.
CORNELIUS LIVINGSTON, Master.
Will sail the 15th of *November*,
For Freight or Passage, agree with *John Waddell*, or said Master.

ADVERTISEMENT IN THE NEW YORK GAZETTE, OCTOBER 23, 1758

these, North Carolina kept fifty sawmills at work. Vessels sailed along the coast and up the rivers, exchanging the products of different colonies. New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania sent flour to Boston and received rum.

The colonists thus made their living chiefly by agriculture, furs, fishing, and the manufacture of molasses into rum and of trees into vessels, barrels, and lumber for houses. An increasing number earned their living by carrying these articles where they were wanted and bringing back the things for which they were exchanged.

Barter.—Colonial trade was handicapped by the necessity of barter. When the colonist produced more of anything than he needed for himself, he could seldom exchange it for money.

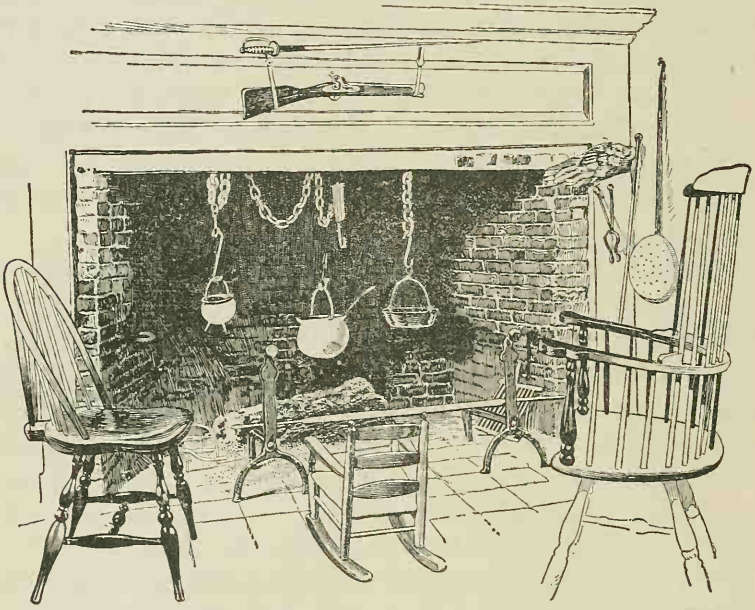
because there was very little in the colonies. He learned what others wanted and what they had to offer, and traded where it seemed most advantageous. This exchange of goods, not for money but for other articles, is called barter. When the Indian wanted a blanket or corn, he offered beaver skins. Tobacco, beaver skins, and corn were used as money in different parts of the country. A Virginia physician charged 400 pounds of tobacco for six visits after dark. A clergyman received 200 pounds of tobacco for a specially good funeral sermon. A Connecticut man sold a slave boy for eight barrels of pork, which was equal in value to 192 bushels of corn. Virginia paid forty-eight beaver skins for building a sawmill. One beaver skin would buy eight pounds of powder at Albany, New York, and four pounds at Montreal, Canada.

Homes.—Colonial houses were at first built of logs, hewed flat on both sides, and piled on one another (see pictures of log houses, pp. 324, 342). When sawmills were run by water power, boards became cheap enough in their vicinity to be used in place of logs. The colonists also learned how to make brick, and some of the wealthier people had houses built of them. There is in existence a contract (1642) for building a one-story house, 30 x 18 feet, of timbers, boarded sides, and floor, thatched roof, upper half of chimney to be made of wood, for $140.

Every house had a large fireplace that would hold logs. The largest log was placed at the back to keep fire all night. The live coals were also covered with ashes at night, because if the fire went out, some member of the family might have to walk miles the next morning for a supply of live coals with which to start the fire. There were then no matches and no stoves for cooking or heating. The cooking was all done in the fireplace. Pots were hung on hooks or on iron arms that extended over the fire. Bread was often baked in the hot ashes. Rabbits, wild pigeons, quail, ducks, and venison were broiled over the live coals.

When the weather was very cold, there was much suffering because the heat from the fireplace did not keep the rooms

warm. The ink might freeze while persons sitting near the fire tried to write a letter. It is not strange that men in those days sometimes wore muffs even in the house. The beds became so cold that the children begged to be allowed to sit up. A long-handled bed warming pan came into use. It was filled with live coals and passed up and down between the linen sheets to



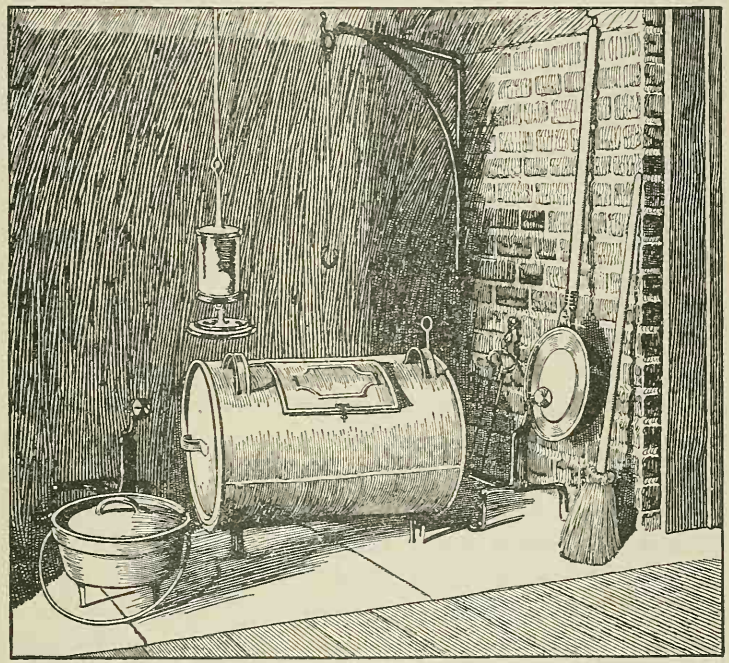
Old New England Fireplace and Furniture

take off the chill. John Adams of Massachusetts, who afterward became President, said that he wished he could sleep all winter like a woodchuck to avoid the cold. We need to study history to appreciate our warm homes and conveniences.

School children studied by the light of pine knots blazing in the fireplace. Candles made in the home were used later when the fireplace would not serve.

The work of women.—The work of women in these colonial homes was as important as that of men. The existence of the

colonies depended on the homes which women made and preserved. Men could hardly have lived without the household industries of the women. There were large families in those days, ten or twelve children not being unusual. There is nothing more



EIGHTEENTH-CENTURY FIREPLACE, UTENSILS, AND IMPLEMENTS

At the left is a bake-kettle used for baking bread among the coals. Next it, is a Dutch oven to be placed in front of the fire for roasting meat. Hanging above this is a "clock-jack," which had the machinery of a clock for turning the attached roast so that it would cook on all sides. Sometimes little dogs were made to run in a treadmill to keep the joint or fowl turning. Franklin's *Pennsylvania Gazette* advertises "several dogs and wheels, much preferable to any jacks for roasting any joints of meat." At the right is a swinging iron crane with a rod and hook from which a kettle could be hung. The long-handled covered pan, holding hot coals, was used for warming beds. A home-made splint broom stands in front.

wonderful in colonial history than the fact that the mother, assisted by her daughters, made all the clothes and did all the cooking and housework.

Few people now know what "homespun" is. Its manufacture was then one of the chief industries of the home. The materials

used for homespun were wool, flax, hemp, and cotton. Wool and flax were the most important. Almost every farm had its flock of sheep to furnish wool and its patch of flax for linen. Girls were taught to spin linen thread and weave it into sheets, pillow cases, towels, and handkerchiefs. Every home had a spindle on which women spun into yarn or thread the flocks of wool and fibers of flax and hemp. Twine was spun from hemp. Many homes had looms (p. 213) for weaving the thread or yarn into fabrics. Sometimes a mother and her daughters sheared the wool from the backs of sheep on Monday and made it into a suit of clothes by Saturday.

SHEARING SHEEP

The man is shearing. The woman is wrapping a shorn sheep in a blanket to protect it from cold.

One bitter cold night, Nancy Peabody, an attractive New Hampshire girl, was told that her brother while chopping wood in the forest had lost his mittens. She ran to a sack of wool in the garret, carded the fleeces, and spun them into yarn that night. In the morning she put the yarn through the necessary soaking and scouring, then knitted it into mittens, making the front part double. Within twenty-four hours her brother had a new pair of mittens that would last a year or more.

SPINNING WHEEL USED IN MAKING LINEN THREAD

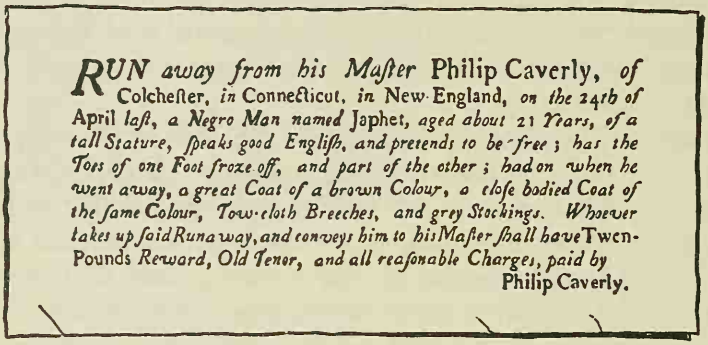
Women also made the soap, candles, and dyes, prepared three meals a day, and did the washing for the large family. They made the butter and cheese and often milked the cows. They reared the children and nursed them when sick. The colonial home was a wonderful school for teaching the household arts. The diary of a young girl contains entries like these to record her work: "Mended, ironed, spun thread, carded wool, worked at making a basket, made a broom, fixed a red dye, scoured the pewter, milked."

Labor.—The colonies needed many laborers, but the supply was scant. In order to keep them from asking high wages, Massachusetts, imitating some old English laws, ordered that skilled workers, such as carpenters, should not receive more than fifty cents a day, and common laborers not more than thirty-seven cents. That amount of money would then buy much more food than it will now, but if a man was not satisfied with his wages he could get a farm and become his own employer. One such farmer raised 364 bushels of corn from two bushels of seed, and he had the unusual good fortune to get from the Indians beaver skins worth $3.50 for every bushel of his corn. He thus made a larger profit than he could have saved in years as an employed laborer.

Children had to work when very young to help relieve the scarcity of labor. The father and his family usually had to do all the work on the farm. Orphans and the children of the poor were often bound out to work until the girls were eighteen and the boys, twenty-one. Such children were sometimes harshly treated. A New York court freed eleven-year-old Margaret Anderson from her master "for very often unmoderately correcting her and not allowing her reasonable time to rest." Boys often became apprentices to learn some business or trade and did much hard work. A Pennsylvania boy was apprenticed for ten years to learn the "art and mystery of farming." He was to be allowed to go to school for one year during that time. A girl was apprenticed for eleven years to be taught "house-

wifery, sewing, knitting, spinning, reading in the Bible, and writing a legible hand."

The South had an increasing number of negro slaves to take the place of white laborers. Negroes were not so profitable at the North, but advertisements of negroes for sale, and of re-



RUN away from his Maſter Philip Caverly, *of* Colcheſter, *in* Connecticut, *in* New-England, *on the 24th of* April *laſt, a Negro Man named* Japhet, *aged about 21 Years, of a tall Stature, ſpeaks good Engliſh, and pretends to be free; has the Toes of one Foot froze off, and part of the other; had on when he went away, a great Coat of a brown Colour, a cloſe bodied Coat of the ſame Colour, Tow-cloth Breeches, and grey Stockings. Whoever takes up ſaid Runaway, and conveys him to his Maſter ſhall have* Twen-Pounds *Reward, Old Tenor, and all reaſonable Charges, paid by*

Philip Caverly.

ADVERTISEMENT IN THE WEEKLY NEW YORK POST-BOY, DECEMBER 22, 1746

wards for capturing runaway slaves, were often published in both northern and southern newspapers.

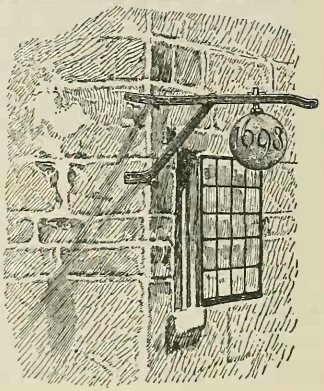
Indentured servants.—The most common form of labor in all the early colonies was that of the indentured servant. When both seller and buyer wanted a copy of the same deed or contract, an indenture was made. "Indenture" is derived from the Latin word for tooth (*dens, dentis*, which appears in the English word "dentist") and means that the two copies of the same document were notched like teeth so that the points in one would fit into the notches in the other. Many poor people in order to pay their passage from Europe to America executed an indenture for the sale of their labor, usually for a term of from four to seven years. The buyer and the seller of this service each kept a copy of this indenture, and the seller came to be known as an "indentured" or "indented" servant. The cost of such a servant's time for the period specified in the indenture was from $50 to $120, but it must be remembered that nearly all prices were far lower then than now.

ADVERTISEMENTS.

A Servant Boys Time for 4 Years to be disposed of. He is about 16 Years of Age, and can keep Accompts, Enquire at the Blue Ball in Union Street, and know further.

AN ADVERTISEMENT OF 1723, AND THE "BLUE BALL" REFERRED TO

The above advertisement is from the *New England Courant*, a Boston newspaper, February 11, 1723. At the right is an accurate picture of the "Blue Ball" mentioned in the advertisement. This ball painted blue was the business sign of Benjamin Franklin's father. Houses and shops were not then given street numbers as they are now, and a place of business was known by the sign in front.



This kind of immigration was very large and important in the development of the country. Virginia often received annually as many as 1500 indentured servants. Agents who were promised $7 a head for every immigrant went through the Rhine district in Germany and told the peasants that the boughs of trees near the home of the Pennsylvania farmer bent beneath the weight of chickens roosting on them, that more hogs than could be eaten fattened on acorns and Indian corn, that a nobleman in Germany could not have as much meat on his table in a week as a Pennsylvania farmer in a day, that everybody ate butter on his good white bread and thought nothing of having four eggs and as much ham as he wanted for breakfast. Thousands of Germans came and sent back word that this seeming fairy tale was true, and other thousands followed them. An Englishman wrote that a poor servant after the expiration of his indenture could get land, raise his own food, and have his own forest furnish a better fire than the nobility of England enjoyed. England, Ireland, and Scotland sent over frequent shiploads of indentured servants. When such ships arrived, those in need of help went on board and made their selection.

There were two classes of indentured servants, those who came of their own free will and those convicts who were transported by the British government. Probably as many as 40,000 convicts, some of whom were only guilty of falling in debt, were sent to the English colonies in the first three quarters of the eighteenth century. When an Englishman argued that America would prove a reforming melting pot, Benjamin Franklin is said to have suggested sending American rattlesnakes to England to make them harmless. Pennsylvania ordered a tax of five pounds on every convict brought into the colony and required bond to be given for his good behavior.

Numbers of those now living in the United States are descended from these indentured servants. Those who came of their own free will sold their labor as honorably as any employees to-day.

Life of the indentured servant.—The treatment of indentured servants varied with the part of the country, the ability of the servant, and the character of the master. Their life was hardest where they worked with the negro slave, and fewer of them went to the South after the first part of the eighteenth century.

Indentured servants were of the most varied kinds,—common laborers, tailors, blacksmiths, farmers, carpenters, school teachers, and doctors. Sometimes the master allowed the servant to practice his trade anywhere in the colony. An indentured dancing teacher had classes in various towns but gave his master all the money that he earned. An indentured school teacher refused to teach children in homes where he was not treated as a gentleman.

The life of common indentured laborers was often hard. There were frequent advertisements in the newspapers offering rewards for runaway servants. The master could for slight offenses prolong the time of service. A boy who was shipped from England to keep him from inheriting an estate had his term of service so often lengthened for trying to escape that he was a grown man and not recognizable as the heir when he

returned to England. A girl who had been beaten ran away, was caught and brought into court to have the term of her servitude extended. Fortunately, the results of the beating were so plain that the court ordered her to be given to a new master who should pay to her former owner the five hundred pounds of tobacco charged for her passage. The bystanders pitied her so much that they collected six hundred pounds of tobacco on the spot, bought her freedom, and gave her the extra one hundred pounds for capital.

RUN away the 27th of *Auguſt* laſt, from *James Anderſon* Miniſter of the Goſpel in *Donigal*, in the County of *Lancaſter* in *Penſilvania*, a Servant Man named *Hugh Wier*, aged about 30 Years of a middle Stature and freſh Complexion, ſandy Beard, and ſhort dark brown Hair, he went off very bear in Cloathing, and is ſuppoſed to have got himſelf dreſs'd in *Indian* Habit, (He having been uſed among *Indians*, when he run away from other Maſters before) He is by Trade a Flax-dreſſer, Spinſter and Woolcomber, and it is ſuppoſed he can Weave; He alſo does moſt ſort of Women Work, ſuch as waſhing of Cloaths or Diſhes, milking of Cows, and other Kitchen Work, and uſually changes his Name, Whoever takes up ſaid Servant and ſecures him either in this or any of the neighbouring Provinces and let his Maſter know of it, by Poſt or otherways, ſo as his ſaid Maſter may have him again, ſhall have *Three Pounds* as a Reward, and all reaſonable Charges paid by me, *James Anderſon*

ADVERTISEMENT IN THE AMERICAN WEEKLY MERCURY, PHILADELPHIA, DECEMBER 14, 1733

Sometimes the indentured servant was treated like a member of the family. There were cases where a worthy indentured young man married the master's daughter and where girls after their term of service became the wives of prominent men. It was common for men after the expiration of the indenture to get land of their own and to succeed in a way that would have been impossible in the old country.

Amusements.—The greatest amusement for the largest number of boys and men was found in hunting, trapping, and watching the habits of wild animals. Boys set snares for partridge, quail, and rabbits and eagerly awaited the morrow's visit to their snares. Hunting was fairyland to boys, and they were given guns very early. They learned to shoot squirrels, rabbits, quail, pigeons, and wild ducks, and looked forward to the time when they might hope to kill a deer, a wolf, or a bear.

Girls had no sport to take the place of hunting, but they could search for wild berries, go to spinning bees, quilting and

A Husking Bee

The barn is lighted by old-fashioned lanterns, containing tallow candles. Have you ever seen such a lantern? The scene at the left is a reminder of the old custom of kissing the girl who husked a red ear.

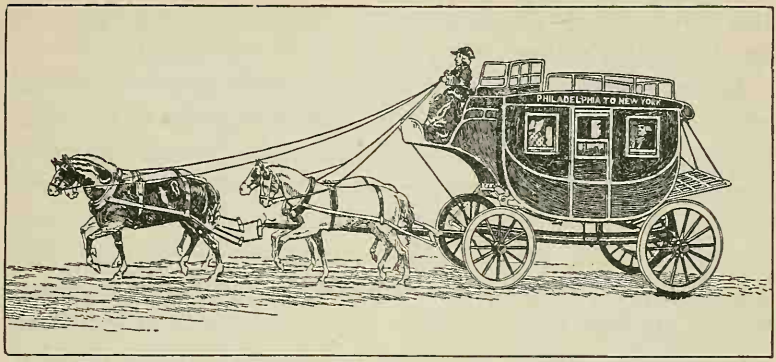
sewing parties, and share the excitement of a corn husking with the boys. Dancing was frowned on in New England, but it was one of the chief amusements of Virginia girls.

The colonists liked to go to church to hear the news as well as to listen to the sermon. They looked forward to going to church with more pleasure than we anticipate a picture show.

Whenever a barn or a house was built, the neighbors came and helped raise the timbers. After these were in place, all had a good social time with plenty to eat and drink. The shearing of sheep and the killing of hogs were events in country life.

The colonists found great enjoyment in their work, which, unlike that in modern factories, changed from season to season and often presented new problems each day for both men and women on the farm (see p. 147, for example).

Travel by land.—Travel, which has become a modern amusement, was then a bugbear. There were few roads passable for



STAGECOACH

wagons. The two ways of traveling on land were by foot or on horseback. Bridges across streams were rare, and horses and riders were often drowned while trying to ford them. Men sometimes made their wills before starting on a fifty-mile trip.

The stagecoach did not come into use until the last part of the colonial era. The first stage line took seventy-two hours to travel the ninety miles between New York and Philadelphia. When the time was reduced to thirty-six hours, the stagecoaches were advertised as flying machines. Railroad trains now make

The new Flying Machine.

THIS is to inform the PUBLIC, That ABRAHAM SKILLMAN, hath erected a Flying Machine, or Stage Waggon, to go once a Week, and return again, from the City of New-York to the City of Philadelphia; to set out from Powles-Hook Ferry, every Tuesday Morning, beginning the 30th Instant, and drive through Newark, Elizabeth-Town, Woodbridge, Brunswick, Princeton, Trenton, and Bristol, so as to be at the City of Philadelphia the next Day, at 12 o'Clock at Noon.

ADVERTISEMENT IN THE NEW YORK GAZETTE AND THE WEEKLY MERCURY, MAY 6, 1771

this trip in two hours. It is not strange that many people then lived and died without going twenty miles from home.

Colonial cities.—It was necessary that cities should be located where they could receive the bulk of their goods by water. The produce of the farm was not worth hauling far by land. It cost as much to carry a ton twenty-five miles by land as to send it 3000 miles across the ocean. There were only seven important cities in all the thirteen colonies at the end of the colonial age, and every one of them was a seaport or on a river which ships could navigate. The South had three of these cities,—Baltimore, Charleston, and Savannah,—while the North had four,—Philadelphia, New York, Boston, and Newport. Philadelphia, the largest of the cities, had fewer than 40,000 inhabitants, while Boston was under 20,000, and Baltimore did not exceed 13,000. More than four fifths of the people then lived in the country.

Education.—The Puritans earnestly believed that it was necessary for the welfare of each individual's soul to be able to read and understand the Bible. Massachusetts passed a law (1647) directing every township of fifty householders to appoint some one to teach the children to read and write. Every township of one hundred families, moreover, was ordered to maintain a college preparatory grammar school.

Harvard College, founded (1636) at Cambridge, Massachusetts, was the first college in the colonies. It was at first intended to prepare young men for the ministry.

Outside of New England, education was mostly a private affair in the colonies during the seventeenth century. A study of three great eighteenth-century men will show the kind of education that each received.

Benjamin Franklin (1706–1790), who was, excepting Washington, perhaps the most useful man to his country in all its history, was the son of a candle and soap maker. The boy went "not quite a year" to a free grammar school in Boston. For a short time he studied writing and arithmetic under a private teacher, but he says that he "failed in the arithmetic." His *Autobi-*

ography tells how he educated himself, especially in writing and speaking English.

There was no public school in Virginia for George Washington (1732–1799), the son of a wealthy Virginia planter. The boy went first to a private school kept by the village sexton, who taught him reading, writing, and ciphering. Young Washington was sent later to a better private teacher and learned more arithmetic and a little geometry, both of which he used in surveying in the woods while he was still a boy. He might have gone to a college in his colony, since William and Mary College had been founded in Virginia toward the close of the previous century (1693), but going to college was not then usual.

John Adams (1735–1826), the second President of the United States, was the son of a Massachusetts farmer, which fact he said made him prouder than if he could trace his descent " from regal or noble scoundrels ever since the flood." The boy had some private teachers with whose ignorance he found fault, but he succeeded in entering Harvard College at the age of fifteen. A college course at that time was not so good as that of a first-class high school to-day. He complained that he had to study Latin classics, like Vergil and Horace, after leaving college.

Each one of this famous trio came from a different station in life. Franklin was poor and was apprenticed as a printer at the age of twelve. He had very little schooling and was forced to educate himself. Washington came from a wealthy, slave-holding Virginia family and had mostly elementary private teaching. He had to get his higher education himself. Judged by the standards of that time, John Adams came from the middle class. Until two years before the Revolution, Harvard printed the names of her graduates not in alphabetical order, but according to the social standing of their parents. Adams's name stood fourteenth in a class of twenty-four. He was the only one of this group of three to receive a college education.

We thus see that a poor New England boy could go to a free public school, that a Virginian had to be taught in a private

COLONIAL PRIVATE SCHOOL

The only desk is a sort of shelf along the wall. The seat is a split log on legs. Books were very few. The only pens were made by hand from quills.

school or at home by a paid teacher, and that a New England farmer of means might employ a tutor for his son and send him to college. Few boys in either public or private schools were taught anything more than reading, writing, and arithmetic.

Unfair treatment of girls.—The early colonial public schools were usually only for boys. We have a sorry story of a Massachusetts girl who sat on the schoolhouse steps, listening to the recitations of the boys inside and trying to learn something.

When girls were taught at home or in private schools, they usually learned only how to read and write. Except in the best families, arithmetic was seldom taught girls. The majority of men thought that reading and writing was enough education for a woman in her home. Mrs. John Adams, a girl in the middle of the eighteenth century, wrote that the education of girls was both neglected and ridiculed.

Mary Ball, the mother of George Washington, said that when she was a girl of fifteen there had been no school teacher in her neighborhood for nearly four years. A young minister, a graduate of Oxford University, England, then came to the Ball home and taught Mary and her sister for his board. Like many others of her time, the mother of Washington never learned how to spell correctly.

Before the nineteenth century, the public school threw open its doors to girls, but it was nearly a hundred years after the Declaration of Independence before girls could go to a college as good as their brothers attended.

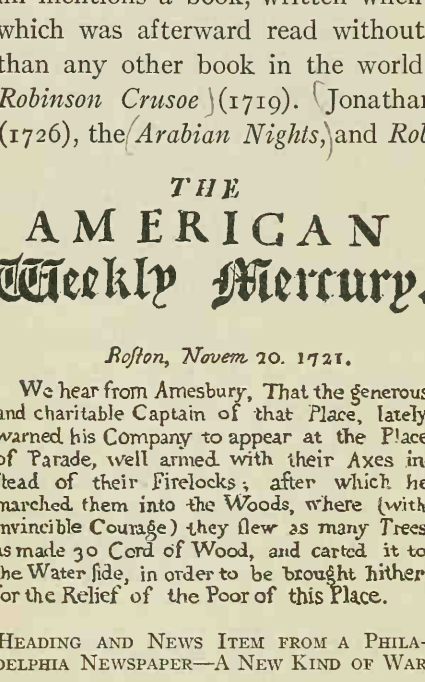
Literature and reading.—Much of colonial literature was religious. The first book of verse printed in the colonies was the *Bay Psalm Book* (1640), a wretched translation of the Psalms, to be sung in church. Washington's mother used to read a book called *Moral and Divine Contemplations.*

Benjamin Franklin (pp. 154, 223) was the most entertaining colonial writer. Almanacs were, next to the Bible, the most widely read publications of the eighteenth century. Franklin's *Poor Richard's Almanac* was read throughout the colonies, and it has been reprinted in whole or in part in this or other countries nearly every year for the past hundred years. The humblest homes knew by heart such rules of thrift and morality as these from that almanac:

> "Rather go to bed supperless than go in debt."
> "What maintains one vice would bring up two children."
> "Leisure is time for doing something useful."
> "Dost thou love life? Then do not squander time, for that's the stuff life is made of."

England's greatest writer, Shakespeare, was not widely read in the colonies. The Puritans did not like the theater, and they considered his dramas irreligious. The two English books most read in the eighteenth century were John Bunyan's *Pilgrim's Progress* (written in the last part of the seventeenth century) and Joseph Addison's *Spectator* (1711–1714), which Franklin

used as a model to teach him how to write English. Washington also read the *Spectator*. Bunyan's works were the first that Franklin bought with his own money. When he was seventeen, he saved from drowning a drunken sailor who had fallen overboard and who surprised Franklin by saying: "Please take the *Pilgrim's Progress* out of my pocket and dry it for me." Franklin mentions a book, written when he was thirteen years old, which was afterward read without compulsion by more boys than any other book in the world. This was Daniel Defoe's *Robinson Crusoe* (1719). Jonathan Swift's *Gulliver's Travels* (1726), the *Arabian Nights*, and *Robinson Crusoe* were the three books most interesting to the young.



THE
AMERICAN
Weekly Mercury.

Boſton, Novem 20. 1721.

We hear from Amesbury, That the generous and charitable Captain of that Place, lately warned his Company to appear at the Place of Parade, well armed with their Axes inſtead of their Firelocks; after which he marched them into the Woods, where (with invincible Courage) they ſlew as many Trees as made 30 Cord of Wood, and carted it to the Water ſide, in order to be brought hither for the Relief of the Poor of this Place.

HEADING AND NEWS ITEM FROM A PHILADELPHIA NEWSPAPER—A NEW KIND OF WAR

The newspaper furnishes to-day a large amount of the reading of the majority of people. There were no regular newspapers in the colonies until 1704. These were for some time small weekly sheets and contained very dull reading. Bunyan, Addison, Defoe, and the Bible were much more interesting. When Benjamin Franklin became editor of the *Pennsylvania Gazette* (1729), he improved that paper as he did almost everything that he touched, but even then the advertisements were often the most interesting matter.

Summary of Points of Emphasis for Review.—(1) Where the colonists settled and why, (2) how they earned their living, (3) barter, (4) homes, discomfort in winter, (5) work of women and girls, homespun, (6) how plenty of land affected the wages of labor, (7) how colonial laborers were provided,—children bound out, apprentices, negroes, indentured servants, (8) life of indentured servants, (9) amusements, (10) joy in work, (11)

travel, (12) cities, (13) education, how Franklin, John Adams, and Washington were educated, education of girls, (14) reading of the colonists.

Activities.—Write one hundred words on the occupations by which you could have earned your living if you had been a colonist. Tell, for instance, how you would have made any one of the following: collar or trace for a horse, handkerchief, broom, blanket, twine, dye.

Tell home people and the class what this widow's letter to a newspaper in 1744 shows about life, work, and waste in a colonial city.

To the Publiſher of the Weekly Poſt-Boy.

I AM a poor Widow, and have often ſet forth the deplorable State of my Caſe to the Alderman of the Ward, but he turns a deaf Ear to all I can ſay; I muſt therefore beg you will give this a Place in your Paper, as an Appeal to the Publick for the Juſtneſs of my Cauſe. My Huſband died about three Years ago, left me with three ſmall Children, a large Score to pay off at Tipling-houſes, for Beer, Punch and Cordials, occaſioned by his too great Attention to Politicks, and Neglect of his Cordwainer's Occupation: After his Death, I followed Waſhing, making Soap, Candles, and ſome other ſmall Matters, which brought me in, now and then a ready Penny, enabling me to pay my Huſband's Debts, and ſave enough to maintain my Family, which I did in a frugal Manner, having for ſome Years paſt raiſed my own *Pork* in my Yard; but I am debar'd from doing that by a Law of the Corporation lately paſs'd for baniſhing all Hogs out of the City, to the great Damage of the poor Widow and Orphan.

WIDOW'S LETTER IN THE WEEKLY NEW YORK POST-BOY, AUGUST 27, 1744

HEADING OF THE NEWSPAPER CONTAINING THE WIDOW'S LETTER

Note the arms of a windmill, the fur-bearing beaver, and the barrels in the above cut. Were any of these articles connected with the widow's troubles?

Draw a map showing the triangle of trade (p. 142). On this triangle paste pictures of products exchanged in the triangular trade mentioned.

How would you have built a colonial house? Draw your plan and tell what materials would be used. (The teacher should read to the class selections from Chapter I. in Earle's *Home Life in Colonial Days*.)

Compare the work of a colonial woman with that of a modern woman. Why are many of the duties of a colonial woman unknown to the woman of to-day? (The teacher should read selections from Chaps. VIII. and IX. in Earle's *Home Life in Colonial Days*.)

Talk for two minutes on "Twenty-four Hours in a Colonial Log House in January."

Do you see any advantages in the life of the colonial boy or girl as compared with yours?

Whittle with your knife, model, or draw some of the things made by the colonial boy. (For hints read Chapter XIII. on *Jack Knife Industries*, in Earle's *Home Life in Colonial Days*.)

If you had owned a colonial farm which required more labor than your family could supply, how would you have secured it?

Write an advertisement describing and offering a reward for a runaway servant.

Compare the amusements of the colonists with those of people to-day. What kinds of natural moving pictures did the colonial boy and girl see?

State the educational advantages which you have that Franklin, John Adams, and Washington did not enjoy.

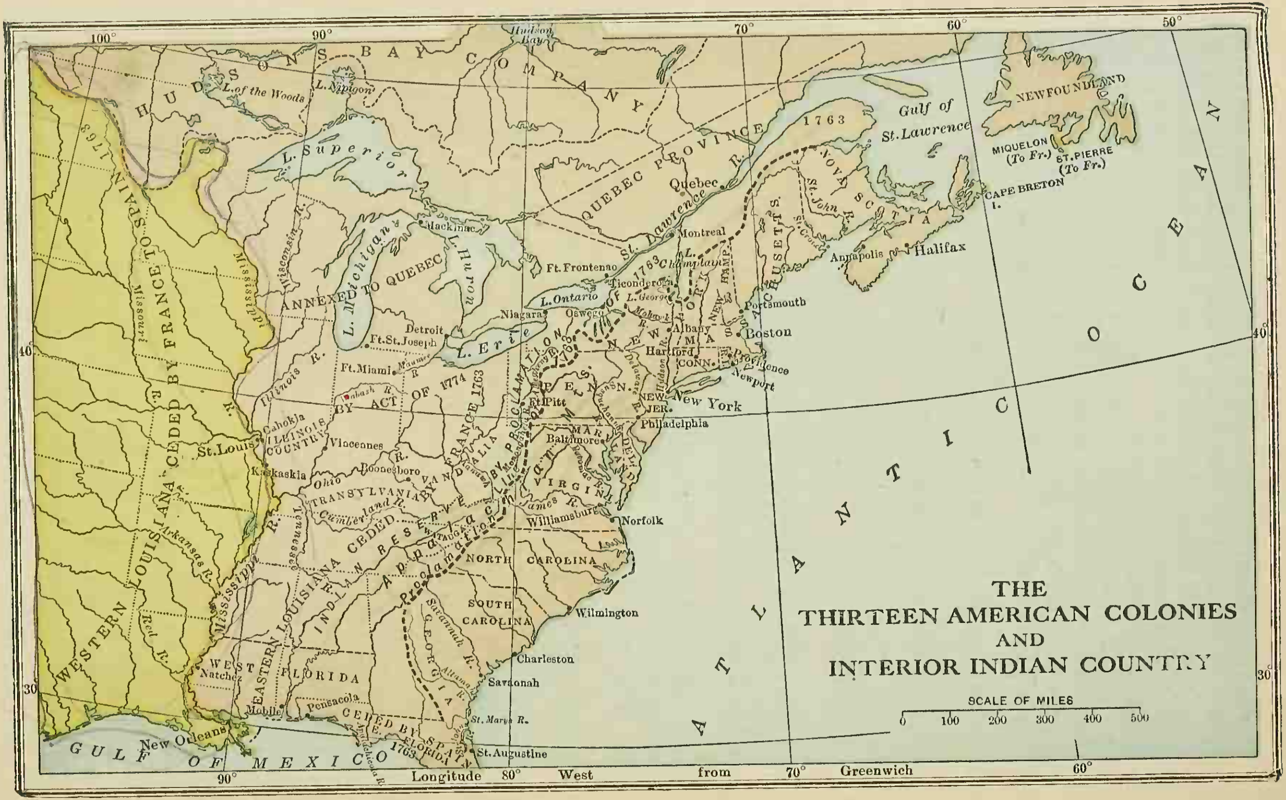
Explain the comparative educational advantages of colonial boys and girls.

(The teacher should read to the class from the first part of Franklin's *Autobiography* the account of how he learned to write, and have the account retold the next day.)

Read in class a short selection from some book which the colonists might have read.

References for Teachers.—Andrews, *Colonial Folkways* (Chron. of Am.); Channing, *Hist. of the U. S.*, II., 367–398, 464–515; Tryon, *Household Manufactures in the U. S.*, II., III.; Greene, *Foundations of Am. Nationality*, 243–266, 338–355; *Provincial America*, XVI., XVII., XVIII.; Clark, *History of Manufactures in the U. S.*, I.–IX.; Fisher, *Men, Women, and Manners in Colonial Times;* Weeden, *Economic and Social History of New England;* Earle, *Colonial Dames and Goodwives; Two Centuries of Costume in Am.*, I.; *Stage Coach and Tavern Days;* Thwaites, *The Colonies*, V., VIII., X.; Halleck, *Hist. of American Literature*, I.; Johnston, *To Have and To Hold* (fiction); *Prisoners of Hope* (fiction).

For Pupils.—Earle, *Home Life in Colonial Days; Child Life in Colonial Days; Customs and Fashions in Old New England;* Eggleston, *Our First Century*, XVIII.–XXIV.; Hart, *Colonial Children*, 155–233; Johnson, *Old Time Schools and School Books*, 1–99.


THE
THIRTEEN AMERICAN COLONIES
AND
INTERIOR INDIAN COUNTRY
SCALE OF MILES
0 100 200 300 400 500
Longitude West from Greenwich
HUDSON'S BAY COMPANY
Hudson Bay
L. of the Woods
L. Nipigon
L. Superior
L. Michigan
L. Huron
L. Erie
L. Ontario
ANNEXED TO QUEBEC BY ACT OF 1774
QUEBEC PROVINCE 1763
Quebec
Montreal
St. Lawrence R.
Gulf of St. Lawrence
NEWFOUNDLAND
MIQUELON (To Fr.)
ST. PIERRE (To Fr.)
CAPE BRETON I.
NOVA SCOTIA
St. John R.
Annapolis
Halifax
ATLANTIC OCEAN
GULF OF MEXICO
Ft. Frontenac
Ticonderoga
L. George
L. Champlain
Niagara
Oswego
Mohawk R.
Mackinac
Detroit
Ft. St. Joseph
Ft. Miami
Maumee R.
Wabash R.
Illinois R.
Wisconsin R.
Cahokia
ILLINOIS COUNTRY
Vincennes
St. Louis
Kaskaskia
Ohio R.
Boonesboro
Tennessee R.
Cumberland R.
TRANSYLVANIA
VANDALIA
Ft. Pitt
PROCLAMATION LINE 1763
Appalachian Mts.
INDIAN RESERVE CEDED BY FRANCE 1763
Watauga
NEW HAMP.
MASSACHUSETTS
Portsmouth
Boston
Providence
Newport
CONN.
Hartford
Albany
NEW YORK
New York
Hudson R.
Delaware R.
NEW JER.
Philadelphia
PENN.
Susquehanna R.
MARYLAND
Baltimore
DEL.
Potomac R.
VIRGINIA
James R.
Williamsburg
Norfolk
NORTH CAROLINA
Wilmington
SOUTH CAROLINA
Charleston
Savannah
Savannah R.
GEORGIA
Altamaha R.
St. Marys R.
St. Augustine
EAST FLORIDA CEDED BY SPAIN 1763
Apalachicola R.
Pensacola
Mobile
WEST FLORIDA
Natchez
New Orleans
EASTERN LOUISIANA
WESTERN LOUISIANA CEDED BY FRANCE TO SPAIN 1763
Mississippi R.
Missouri R.
Arkansas R.
Red R.
100°
90°
80°
70°
60°
50°
40°
30°

CHAPTER XI

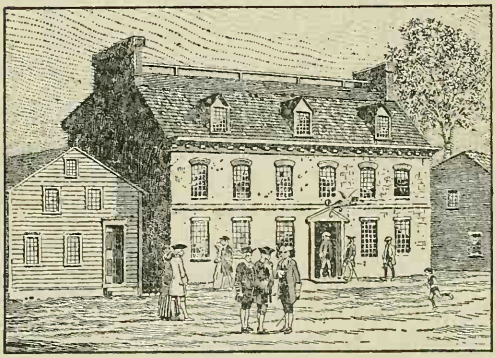
CAUSES OF SEPARATION FROM GREAT BRITAIN

The earlier separation.—The first separation from England took place when colonists of strong character sought these shores as a protest against her government. Such came to America because they wished (1) to go to heaven in their own way and (2) to govern themselves as they chose. This was a worthy modern aim which needs no apology. It is what true Americans wish to-day.

These lovers of liberty were likely to protest against interference with their natural rights in their new home. We have learned why they came to America. We must now trace the main causes of their political separation from Great Britain, which led to the formation of the United States.

Practice of self-government in the colonies.—There were three types of British colonies in America: (1) charter colonies, those which had a charter from the king and were governed in accordance with it, (2) royal colonies, those directly under the control of the king, and (3) proprietary colonies, those governed by a proprietor. At the end of the colonial period, only three of the thirteen colonies (Connecticut, Rhode Island, Massachusetts) remained charter colonies; three, Maryland, Pennsylvania, and Delaware, were proprietary; and the remaining seven were royal. The king appointed the governor in Massachusetts and in the royal colonies, the people elected him in Connecticut and Rhode Island, and the proprietor chose him in the other colonies. The colonial government was modeled after that of Great Britain: the governor corresponding to the king; the Council, or upper house, to the House of Lords; and the lower house, often called the Assembly or House of Representatives (House of Burgesses in Virginia), to the House of Commons.

The king usually appointed the Council in the royal colonies, but the people always chose the representative lower house or Assembly, no matter whether they lived in a royal, proprietary, or charter colony. This is the one most important fact about the government of the colonies. They all had practice in self-government because the Assembly which they elected to represent them voted the taxes to furnish money to meet the expenses of government. It also decided for what the money should be spent.



GREEN DRAGON TAVERN, BOSTON

Notice the sign over the door. Here such patriots as Samuel Adams, John Hancock, and Paul Revere met to discuss measures of resistance to the governor of Massachusetts.

The power of the holder of the purse.—In all but four of the colonies, the Assembly paid the governor's salary by a grant voted each year. If he was too tyrannical, they might refuse to pay him. The governor of the royal colony of New York complained that he had to beg his bread from a hard-hearted Assembly. The Assembly sometimes also refused salaries to judges whose decisions did not suit. "He who has the power of the purse is virtual king," wrote an Englishman. The people had that power in the colonies, and therefore had a large measure of self-government.

The colonists had become so accustomed to electing their Assembly which voted the taxes that they were unwilling to surrender the taxing power to any one else. The attempt of the British Parliament to tax them was one of the chief causes of the separation from Great Britain.

Restrictions on trade.—All European nations expected to control the trade of their colonies in order to make them as

beneficial as possible to the mother country. Spain and France had rigid trade restrictions for their colonies. A little after the middle of the seventeenth century, England passed what are known as Navigation Acts. These forbade goods to be taken into the English colonies or exported from them except in English, Irish, or colonial vessels, and also ordered that only vessels flying the English flag should bring colonial products to England. The colonists were allowed to trade with England and Europe in their own vessels. A few "enumerated" articles produced in the colonies, such as tobacco, cotton, and sugar, could be sent only to England. Sometimes Virginia complained because she was compelled to send her tobacco to England when Holland would have paid more for it. Another act (1663) ordered that no European goods should be brought to the colonies unless they had first been landed in England.

Restrictions on manufactures.—The aim of Great Britain was to engage in such manufactures and to have her colonies produce such raw materials as to make the British Empire independent of the rest of the world. She did not wish the colonists to compete with her home manufactures. Her most important restrictions on colonial manufactures were three: (1) She forbade the colonists to ship wool or its manufactures to other colonies or "to any other place whatsoever." (2) She would not allow one colony to make hats for another colony or to send them abroad. (3) She forbade the colonists to erect iron rolling mills or furnaces for making steel, but she encouraged the production of colonial pig iron for British manufactures.

Great Britain also ordered that the best timber in the colonies should be reserved for the British navy; but on the other hand some of her regulations were of benefit to the colonies. She allowed New England to make vessels for her and would not place a duty on them, although it was repeatedly demanded by English shipbuilders. She paid to the colonies a higher price (called a "bounty") for certain articles, such as tar and pitch. She removed the duty on colonial lumber but kept it on the

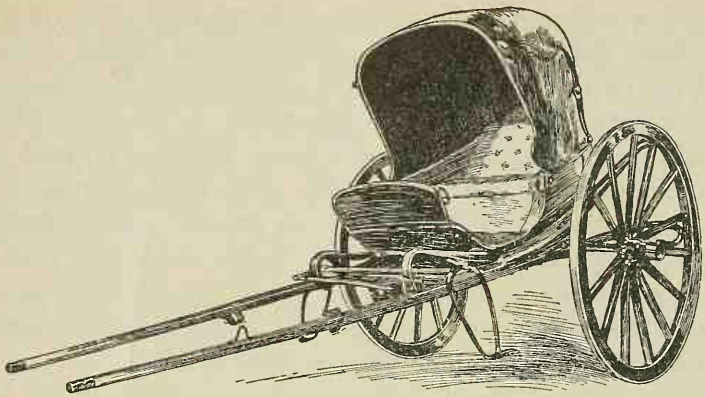
foreign product. She prohibited the importation of tobacco from foreign lands, thus giving the colonies a monopoly of the British market. The British people said that all the bounties paid came out of their pockets, that their houses cost more because there was a duty on foreign lumber, and that articles made out of iron were more expensive because there was a duty on foreign iron in order to encourage colonial production.

What was the effect of these restrictions?—Soon after the prohibition of colonial iron or steel mills, colonists were distressed to see their first slitting mill advertised for sale (1753). Such mills rolled iron into plates and slitted them into strips of the right thickness and width for making nails with a hammer at the fireside. Colonists forbidden to ship wool sometimes drove their sheep to be sheared where the wool was wanted.

Restrictions on colonial manufactures did not work so much harm as might have been expected, because (1) household manufactures were not forbidden; and (2) labor was scarce and could be more profitably employed in farming and trading than in manufacturing. One American who has made a special study of this period says: "It would be difficult to estimate whether colony or mother country was called on to bear a greater proportion of the sacrifice demanded by the idea of a self-sufficient commercial empire."

The important point to notice, however, is the mental effect of these restrictions. They made the colonists angry, and this feeling helped bring on separation. When Great Britain refused to give the colonies any right that she enjoyed,—for instance, to manufacture iron or wool,—she made them angry, no matter whether they wanted to exercise the right or not.

Why Great Britain was preferred.—We have seen (pp. 162–163) that the other European powers also treated their colonies selfishly at this time. If we had lived in the colonies before the middle of the eighteenth century, we should have known that we could not escape being attached to some European nation, for the land and its products were too good to escape



ONE-HORSE CHAISE OF THE REVOLUTIONARY PERIOD
In the Essex Institute, Salem, Massachusetts.

seizure by some stronger power. The Dutch had captured Sweden's colony on the Delaware, and the English had taken possession of New Netherland. France was now trying to conquer the British colonies. Let us put ourselves in the place of the colonists and decide whether we should have preferred to have over us France, Spain, or some other country. Holland had a fine record for her love of liberty, but her colonists complained that they did not have as much freedom as the New Englanders. Most of the English colonists had religious freedom and an amount of self-government that nearly all the European powers would not have allowed. Many Frenchmen and Germans were coming to the British colonies. Men from Massachusetts and other colonies fought side by side with the British for fear that France might conquer them. Although Massachusetts chafed under British rule, she would have preferred it to that of any other nation. But the time came when the colonies determined to escape from the control of any European power.

The expulsion of France as a cause of separation.—The result of the long war with France was her expulsion from the North American continent. She was no longer dangerous to the colonies, and they did not need Great Britain's protection as

much as before. A careful student of the relations of the colonies to Great Britain says: "The entire course of English colonial history up to 1763 shows that the closeness or the looseness of the imperial tie depended on the extent of the danger from Spain or France. The fact that Great Britain protected the colonies in peace and war was the main bond securing them to the mother country. So apparent was this that a Swedish scientist, who toward the middle of the eighteenth century traveled extensively in the colonies, questioned whether England had ever seriously intended to conquer Canada, as the proximity of the French deterred the colonies from seceding."

Before the Treaty of Paris (p. 138) was signed, there was a warm debate in Great Britain whether she should not return Canada to the French and keep instead certain French West Indian islands. William Pitt asked in the House of Commons: "Some are for keeping Canada; some, Guadeloupe; who will tell me which I shall be hanged for not keeping?" If Great Britain had decided to let the French keep Canada, the history of the thirteen colonies might have been very different.

Increased taxation needed.—Another reason why the expulsion of the French led to separation was the need of increased taxation. In order to hold the interior of the country, Great Britain had to do as the French had done,—place soldiers in forts in the interior of the country. The British government proposed to keep ten thousand men there at an expense of more than a million dollars a year. The debt of Great Britain had doubled as a result of the war, and her taxpayers thought the colonists should pay part of her expenses.

In order to lessen the need of protection against the Indians, George III issued (1763) a proclamation forbidding the colonists to settle between the Appalachians and the Mississippi. The Indians of the interior preferred the French because they were fur traders, while the English settled on the land and drove away the game. Pon'tiac, an able Indian chief, formed a conspiracy (1763) to drive the English out of the Ohio valley. He and his

braves massacred many of the settlers and left only the forts at Detroit and Pittsburgh in the hands of the British. The Indians were finally checked with the aid of British soldiers, but Pontiac's war showed Great Britain (1) that troops were necessary in the interior, and (2) that the colonies could not be relied on to furnish them. When the British commander called for men, Virginia at once sent her quota; but some colonies sent only half the number asked, while others delayed until the crisis of the war had passed. Sometimes, however, the colonies had strained their resources to furnish men for the common defense.

New taxation.—In order to help the British sugar-producing islands, the British Parliament had passed the Molasses Act (1733), imposing a duty of six pence a gallon on molasses brought into the colonies from foreign lands. But this act was not enforced; the molasses was usually smuggled in without the payment of duty. The Sugar Act (1764) now ordered duties on many things but reduced the tax on molasses to three pence a gallon and provided for the collection of all duties. This step increased the discontent throughout the colonies but had scarcely any result in producing British revenue. The British navy began to seize vessels suspected of smuggling. One naval vessel, the *Gaspee*, was burned by the colonists after she had run aground chasing a colonial packet. Juries of colonists would not convict men of smuggling, because the people thought the duties unjust. They also resented two measures which the British government used in its attempts to collect the duties: (1) In spite of the eloquent protest of James Otis (1761) the courts issued general search warrants, called "Writs of Assistance," which allowed officers to enter any home or other place to search for smuggled goods. (2) Any one suspected of smuggling could be tried in an admiralty or maritime court, by judges who were appointed by the king and who conducted the trial without a jury. Men accused of treason, moreover, could be taken to England for trial. This meant great hardship to those accused, and deprived them of witnesses for their defense.

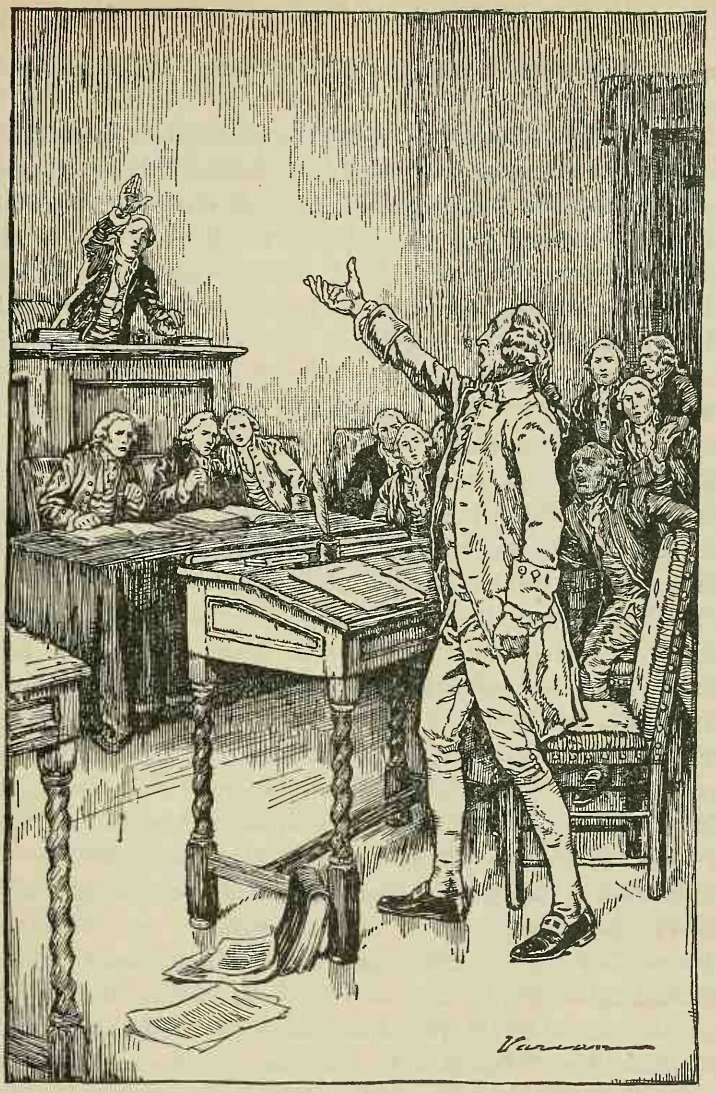
The Stamp Act.—Great Britain had long been in the habit of raising money from her home people by requiring stamps to be placed on documents and papers. George Grenville, the British prime minister, proposed to raise money in the same way in the colonies. The assemblies of several colonies promptly objected to any kind of tax by Parliament. But the next year (1765) the British Parliament passed the colonial Stamp Act, which ordered the colonists to pay for stamps on all legal documents, pamphlets, newspapers, advertisements, almanacs, and certain other articles. The act also ordered that the money thus raised should be put in a separate fund for the defense of the colonies. Offenses against the Stamp Act could be tried by a court without a jury.

The Stamp Act was a new departure in colonial taxation by act of Parliament, because it was a direct tax on individuals. The colonists had previously paid indirect taxes in the form of duties collected at the customhouse, but these were levied by Parliament for the purpose of controlling and restricting trade (p. 163). Moreover, the duties had usually been paid by the merchant, who quietly added them to the cost of articles. If the price of rum or silk was higher because of duties, the colonists might refuse to buy, but they could not very well do without the papers now taxed, including, for example, deeds to land and marriage certificates.

NEWSPAPER JIBE AT THE STAMP ACT

In the *Pennsylvania Journal* of October 31, 1765, which announced that it suspended publication because it could not bear the burden of the stamps.

The colonists protested against this taxation without representation. When stamp distributors were appointed, there were riots from New Hampshire to South Carolina, which forced them to resign. Crowds destroyed the property of British officials in Boston and hanged in effigy its distributor of stamps. When the stamps arrived, there was no one to sell them. Georgia used some of the stamps and was threatened with a boycott. Young ladies in Providence, Rhode Island,



PATRICK HENRY MAKING HIS FAMOUS SPEECH AGAINST THE STAMP ACT, IN THE VIRGINIA HOUSE OF BURGESSES

The artist represents him while he was saying: "Cæsar had his Brutus; Charles the First had his Cromwell; and George the Third [cries of 'Treason! Treason!'] . . . may profit by their example." Attempts were made to have Patrick Henry indicted for treason for his speech, but failed.

declared that no man who favored the Stamp Act could call on them.

The Stamp Act Congress.—Nine colonies sent representatives to New York to discuss the Stamp Act. This body became known as the Stamp Act Congress. Its meeting was very important because it showed that the colonies would unite to consider matters of common good. John Adams likened the thirteen colonies to clocks and said that the great problem was to get the thirteen clocks to strike together. The Stamp Act made more of them strike together than anything that had preceded. The Stamp Act Congress sent to London a series of resolutions, the most important of which were: (1) the denial of the right to tax the colonies without their consent, (2) a declaration that every British subject in the colonies had a right to trial by jury, and (3) a request for the repeal of the Stamp Act and other acts that interfered with American commerce.

The boycott and the repeal.—The colonists boycotted British goods. In less than six months the colonial orders for them showed a decrease of $3,000,000. Boston sent in large orders for goods to be filled when the Stamp Act was repealed. British merchants were alarmed at the loss of their trade, and they persuaded Parliament to repeal the Stamp Act the next year (1766). In its repeal, Parliament gave notice that it had power to "legislate for the colonies in all matters whatsoever."

Different meanings of "representation."—The slogan of the colonies had become, "no taxation without representation." This was also an English slogan, for the Englishman had long before demanded that kings and lords should not tax him without the consent of the House of Commons elected to represent the taxpayers. "No taxation without representation" meant to the Englishman no taxation except by vote of the House of Commons. To the colonists, this slogan meant that no tax could be imposed on any colony without a vote of its own Assembly.

The Lord Chief Justice of England decided against the colonists when he said: "There can be no doubt but that the

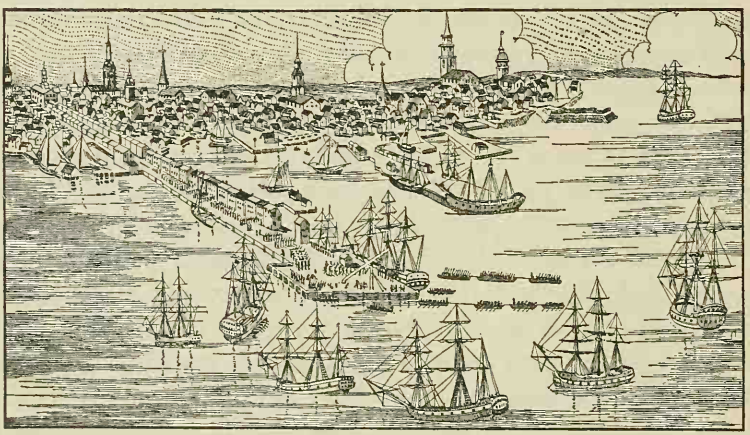
inhabitants of the colonies are as much represented in Parliament as the greatest part of the people in England are." This was true, for cities like Birmingham and Manchester in England then had no vote, but were taxed because they were represented by members of Parliament elected by other cities that did vote. Great Britain was not then governed by all her people but by a comparatively small number of men of wealth. It could then be said that 154 individuals had influence enough to choose 307 members of the House of Commons. Of the 8,000,000 people in England in 1775, only about 150,000, or one man in ten, could vote. The colonists declared that they were not, and could not be, represented in Parliament, and demanded that their taxation be left to their own truly representative assemblies. Their stand aided the rank and file of the English in a later struggle for a proper share in their government.

In strict fairness it should be said that in most of the colonies, as well as in England, the majority of men were not allowed to vote, but only those with a certain amount of property. The colonies did not then realize that taxes were really paid by both poor and rich, because the seller of any article added to the price the extra cost of the tax. The poor in the colonies were thus indirectly taxed without representation.

The Townshend Acts.—The colonies would not submit to the direct stamp tax, so Charles Townshend (toun'zĕnd), one of the members of the king's cabinet, said that as they had long been used to indirect taxes, he would frame an act to get more revenue in that way. The Townshend Acts (1767) laid duties on a new list of articles, such as glass, paper, tea, and painters' materials. These acts also provided for using some of the proceeds to pay the salaries of colonial governors and judges, declared general warrants or writs of assistance legal, and ordered the trial of revenue cases by judges without juries.

The colonists no longer paid any attention to a difference between direct and indirect taxation. They said that any law that raised prices imposed a tax, and that only their assemblies could

pass such a law. They refused to import goods from Great Britain until the law was repealed, and they tried to produce everything possible for themselves. One town in Massachusetts wove in a year an average of forty yards of cloth for every human being living there. A prominent southern gentleman wore blue homespun at his wife's funeral. A man who gave information about smuggled goods was tarred and feathered.



BRITISH TROOPS LANDING AT BOSTON IN 1768

Redrawn from a contemporary engraving by Paul Revere. All ships in those days were sailing vessels. It was more than fifty years after this when the Atlantic was first crossed by a steamship.

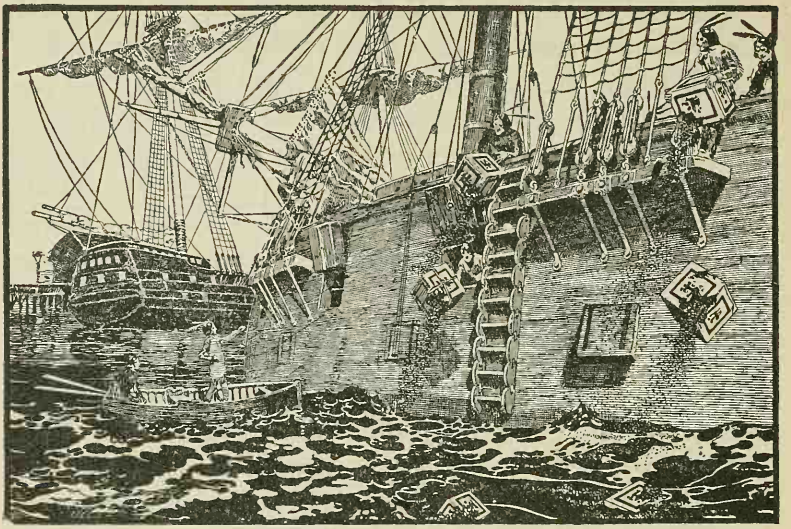
The trouble over collecting the duties caused the king to send two regiments of soldiers to Boston. Their presence offended the people and led to broils. The Boston Massacre resulted (March 5, 1770). British soldiers fired into a crowd, killing five and wounding six. Public feeling then compelled the removal of the troops to an island in the harbor.

The Townshend duties had resulted in a deficit instead of a revenue. On the very day of the Boston Massacre a motion was made which resulted in the repeal (1770) of all these duties except the tax on tea. This was retained to show the colonists that Parliament reserved the right to tax them.

New Tea Act.—The retention of the duty on tea did not result in serious trouble for some time. The colonists used some tea imported from England, but they smuggled most of their supply from Holland. Three years after the repeal of the Townshend Acts, Parliament passed a new Tea Act (1773) which allowed the East India Company to send tea to America. The colonial duty on this tea was to be only three pence a pound, or one half what the English paid. The colonists could now get tea cheaper than the English and cheaper than it could be brought from Holland even when the duty was evaded.

Colonial merchants rouse the people.—The Americans were at this time paying large duties levied by Parliament on imported sugar, molasses, and wine; but these taxes were for regulating trade from foreign lands. The duty on tea seemed worse because it was merely for revenue. The people might have overlooked this difference if it had not been for the colonial merchants, who said the tax on tea was a trick to enslave the colonists by making them accept the principle of taxation without representation. The merchants were especially interested because the East India Company left them out in the distribution of its tea, which it sent direct to its own agents. The merchants also feared that the company would soon be selling silks and other eastern products in this way. Self-interest prompted the merchants to start the cry against the cheaper taxed tea. When they feared resistance might go so far as to destroy property, some of them tried to stop the storm which they had raised, but the masses were sincere and patriotic and determined to buy none of the tea.

The Boston Tea Party.—Pennsylvania and New York sent ships back without allowing them to unload the tea. South Carolina had the tea stored but would not allow it to be sold. The royal governor of Massachusetts ordered the tea to be landed. The night before it was to be put ashore, a crowd of colonists dressed like Indians went on board and emptied the tea into the harbor. It was not a disorderly mob that boarded



EMPTYING THE TEA OVERBOARD, AT BOSTON, 1773

the English vessels, but a band of well disciplined men who allowed no tea to be taken ashore but emptied it overboard in almost military fashion. A large crowd of people on the shore watched this Boston Tea Party without disapproval.

The punishment of Boston.—King George and his ministers were very angry because they realized that Great Britain had already backed down twice, once in the case of the Stamp Act, and again in the repeal of the Townshend duties. They believed that unless she now compelled obedience to her laws, she could not expect any of them to be heeded in the future.

Parliament passed what have been called the "Intolerable Acts" (1774). These acts (1) closed the port of Boston to all commerce until the tea should be paid for, (2) changed the charter of Massachusetts so as to give the king and his governor more power, (3) provided that any soldier or crown officer charged with any offense while enforcing law, should be sent to England or to some other colony for trial, (4) ordered that British soldiers sent over should be quartered on the people.

Sympathy with Boston.—Boston harbor was blockaded so that no goods could pass in or out. General Gage came with British soldiers to act as military governor.

There were no railroads in those days and Boston received most of her food and other supplies by water. The blockade kept vessels from bringing her anything. She was in much the same position as an inland city would find itself in to-day, during a railroad strike. Her sailors, ship carpenters, fishermen, merchants, and workmen who handled her commerce from all parts of the world, were idle. Many were soon in a starving condition.

The Virginia burgesses appointed a day of fasting and prayer, and declared that an attack on one colony was an attack on all. Virginia raised both money and food for Boston, sending there almost nine thousand bushels of grain. Charleston sent rice; Philadelphia, more than a thousand barrels of flour. A Connecticut farmer drove a flock of his own sheep to Boston to help feed its people. The citizens of Providence built a new church on purpose to employ the Boston carpenters. Never before had the colonists been cemented together by such ties of sympathy. George Washington offered to raise a thousand soldiers at his own expense and march to the relief of Boston. The colonies forgot their jealousies and were rapidly becoming ready to "strike together."

The first Continental Congress.—Virginia suggested a congress of all the colonies, and Massachusetts issued the call. The part that Samuel Adams (1722–1803), a Harvard graduate of Boston, played in this call is interesting. This patriot was almost as important a figure during the twelve years before the Declaration of Independence as George Washington was in the War of the Revolution. Samuel Adams loved the common people, and, more than any other single man, he developed a spirit of independence in the colonists. In his speeches and letters he showed them that resistance to Great Britain was necessary in order to preserve their liberty.

One of his greatest achievements was to arouse Committees of Correspondence to send circular letters to all the towns in Massachusetts and "to the world" setting forth (1) the rights of the colonists and (2) the violations of those rights.

Under his direction, the Assembly in Boston locked its doors while it selected delegates to the first Continental Congress. A royalist sympathizer on the inside, claiming that he was deathly ill, rushed out and warned the governor, who immediately sent his secretary with a writ which would legally dissolve the Assembly. Adams kept the door locked, and the secretary had to stay outside until all the delegates were elected.

All the colonies except Georgia sent delegates to the first Continental Congress, which met in Philadelphia in 1774. This Congress passed resolutions declaring the right of the colonists to life, liberty, and property, objecting to a British "standing army in these colonies in times of peace," and asking for the repeal of all acts of Parliament that conflicted with the rights of the colonists. The Quebec Act was included among such objectionable laws. This had been recently passed (1774) to extend the boundary of Quebec to the south, so as to include all the region north of the Ohio River to the Great Lakes, and west of that river to the Mississippi. The king was authorized to appoint all the governing officials of this vast territory. This act was a new grievance. The colonists had helped Great Britain wrest this territory from France in the hope of having these lands for trade and colonization. But the Quebec Act would confine the northern colonies to a restricted area and stop their expansion.

Provision was made for the meeting of another Congress in May, 1775, unless the grievances of the colonies should in the meantime be redressed. Before adjourning, this Congress agreed to stop trade with Great Britain until the objectionable acts had been repealed.

Preparation for war.—The British General Gage and his soldiers put Boston under military rule. In defiance of his orders, Massachusetts had a provincial congress which appointed a

"committee of safety" to collect arms and ammunition and organize companies of "minutemen," ready to fight at a minute's notice. John Hancock, a graduate of Harvard and a leading Boston merchant, became president of this Massachusetts congress, and Samuel Adams was a leading member.

The colonists and the British both realized that hostilities might begin at any time. In March, 1775, Patrick Henry of Virginia delivered his famous speech, ending: "I know not what course others may take, but as for me, give me liberty or give me death." In a few weeks the war began.

Significance of the war.—The war, which began in resisting taxation without representation, was fought for a modern idea, —to secure "government of the people, by the people, and for the people." In this aim, the colonies were right; in opposing it, King George III and his advisers were wrong. We should remember that some of the greatest statesmen in Great Britain, such as William Pitt (Earl of Chatham), and Edmund Burke, the orator, thought that the American colonies were right in resisting.

The successful revolt of the American colonies helped the cause of liberty throughout the world. The French in their great Revolution (p. 234) and the South Americans in casting off the yoke of Spain (p. 275) followed the lead of the patriots of the American Revolution. The loss of the American colonies caused Great Britain to give to her own people and to her self-governing colonies the liberties for which Americans had fought. An English historian says: "The American Revolution was, perhaps, the most important event in modern history."

Summary of Points of Emphasis for Review.—(1) Three types of British colonies and their government, (2) the one most important fact about colonial government, (3) how the majority of the colonial governors were paid, (4) restrictions on trade and manufactures, (5) desire for an independent British Empire, (6) effects of the regulation of manufactures and trade, (7) mental effect of restrictions, (8) preference for Great Britain, (9) expulsion of France as a cause of separation, (10) necessity of increased taxation, (11) new taxes and new methods to enforce collection, (12) Stamp Act and the Stamp Act Congress, (13) different mean-

ings of "representation," (14) Townshend Acts, (15) relation of the merchants to the tax on tea, (16) Boston Tea Party and result, (17) first Continental Congress, (18) preparation for war, (19) modern aim of the colonists.

Activities.—Draw a map of the thirteen colonies. Give different colors to the royal, charter, and proprietary colonies at the time of the Revolution.

If you had been a colonist compelled to be subject to some nation, state in what order you would have chosen these four powers of western Europe,—Spain, France, Holland, Great Britain. Give the reason for your choice in a three-minute talk.

Explain in as few words as possible the point of view (a) of the colonist, (b) of the Englishman, in regard to taxes, restrictions, and bounties.

What is meant by "the mental effect" of restrictions on trade and manufactures? Which is the more real, something that happens outside the mind or inside it? Did Great Britain know the state of mind of the colonists? Give a three-minute talk on these questions.

Write one hundred words to explain why the expulsion of France from North America led to separation.

Ask some person to whom you explain the different meanings of "taxation without representation" if your explanation is clear.

Tell the class what you think of the colonial merchants in connection with the tax on tea.

The class might write a play in which Samuel Adams and the Boston Tea Party are actors.

References for Teachers.—Egerton, *Origin and Growth of the English Colonies*, VI., VIII.; Beer, *British Colonial Policy*, 1754–1765; Channing, *Hist. of the U. S.*, III., 1–150; Fisher, *Struggle for American Independence*, I.; Becker, *Eve of the Revolution* (Chron. of Am.); Greene, *Foundations of Am. Nationality*, IX., XVII., XVIII.; Van Tyne, *Causes of the War of Independence;* Bogart, *Economic Hist. of U. S.*, VII., VIII.; Clark, *Hist. of Manufactures in U. S.*, I.–IX.; Schlesinger, *Colonial Merchants and the American Revolution;* Hosmer, *Samuel Adams;* Hart, *Am. Hist. Told by Contemporaries*, II., 373–382, 394–448.

For Pupils.—Sparks, *Men Who Made the Nation*, 19–105; Hart, *Camps and Firesides of the Revolution*, 153–166; Gordy, *Am. Leaders and Heroes*, 146–163; Hawthorne, *Grandfather's Chair*, III., Ch. II.–VII.; Foote and Skinner, *Makers and Defenders of Am.*, 9–30; Southworth, *Builders of Our Country*, I., 206–225, II., 1–23.

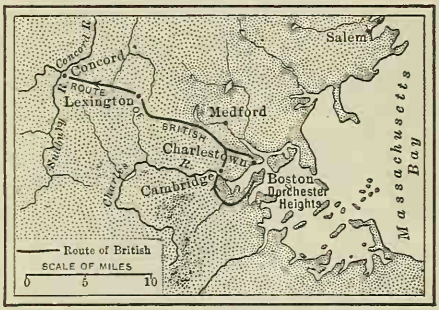
Fiction: Munroe, *At War with Pontiac;* Barr, *Strawberry Handkerchief;* Kaler, *The Charming Sally;* Lathrop, *Little Maid of Boston Town.*

CHAPTER XII

BEGINNING OF THE REVOLUTIONARY WAR

Lexington and Concord.—The contest between the colonies and the mother country has been called the Revolutionary War. It soon became a war for independence but it was not recognized as such in the beginning. At first it was a struggle for a change of policy in the British government.

Boston approved of its tea party. The British army was there to punish it for that act. The British ministers thought that some rebels, as the defiant Bostonians were called, should be sent to England for trial. The two most conspicuous rebels were John Hancock, president of the provincial congress of Massachusetts, and Samuel Adams. On the night of April 18, 1775, General Gage sent a body of British troops to arrest Hancock and Adams at Lexington and to seize some military stores at Concord (kŏng'kŏrd), eighteen miles northwest of Boston.



WHERE THE REVOLUTIONARY WAR BEGAN

On that night there was at Charlestown, across the river from Boston, an American of Huguenot descent holding a horse by the bridle, while he watched for a lantern signal from a church tower. His name was Paul Revere (re-vēr'), and he is known as "the courier of the Revolution." He was a skillful silversmith who could also engrave pictures and make excellent bells, some of which are ringing yet. He had been a member of the Boston tea party and he was now a volunteer night watchman

to warn the country of any movement of British troops. He knew that it would be his duty to warn Hancock and Adams and to let the minutemen know that the enemy was coming. Suddenly there was a gleam of lanterns in the church belfry, telling him that the British had started. He galloped away in the moonlight to Lexington in time to awake Hancock and Adams and also to arouse the town.

MONUMENT TO CAPTAIN JOHN PARKER, COMMANDER OF THE MINUTEMEN AT LEXINGTON

The British troops reached Lexington at dawn. Finding sixty minutemen there, the British commander cried: "Disperse, ye rebels!" When they did not obey, his troops fired on them, killing or wounding eighteen. The British then went to Concord and destroyed what few military stores they could find. At the bridge over the Concord River, the minutemen poured a deadly fire into the British and drove them back. The spot is marked by a monument on which are inscribed the following well-known lines from Emerson's *Concord Hymn:*

> "By the rude bridge that arched the flood,
> Their flag to April's breeze unfurled,
> Here once the embattled farmers stood
> And fired the shot heard round the world."

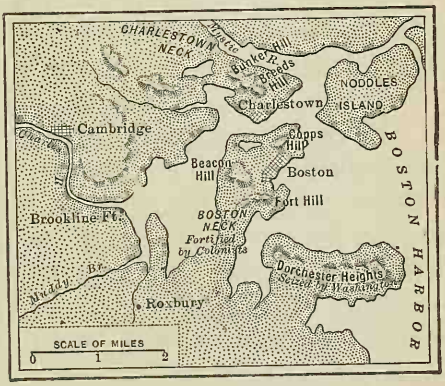
The day which Samuel Adams was expecting had at last arrived. As he and Hancock crossed the fields to a place of

safety, they heard the musket fire of the patriots, and Adams exclaimed: "Oh, what a glorious morning is this!"

The minutemen flocking in from every side fired from behind stone fences and trees at the retreating British. These men were good shots, for they were used to killing squirrels, rabbits, and foxes. The red coats of the British soldiers were conspicuous marks for the muskets of the patriots. The British might never have reached Boston if reënforcements had not met them at Lexington. The British lost 273, the colonists 93. In a few days 16,000 American militia gathered to besiege the British in Boston.

How the news of the fighting was received.—News of the battle at Lexington and Concord was carried southward by swift horsemen. When New York heard of it, her people disarmed the royal troops and seized military supplies. Philadelphia rang the bell in the Pennsylvania Statehouse, later called Independence Hall (see Frontispiece). The people of Charleston, South Carolina, took the royal arsenal, and their provincial congress declared that they were "ready to sacrifice their lives and fortunes."

Siege of Boston; Battle of Bunker Hill.—"War's begun and school's done," said a Boston schoolmaster as he turned his boys loose on the day (April 19, 1775) that marked the beginning of the Revolution at Lexington and Concord. The Americans fortified the narrow neck of land southwest of Boston to keep the British from leaving the city by land. As it seemed likely that they might use boats to cross to Charlestown, north of Boston, twelve hundred Americans under Colonel William Prescott marched by night across Charlestown Neck to



SIEGE OF BOSTON

BATTLE OF BUNKER HILL, FROM AN EARLY ENGRAVING

Boston is at the left, British warships in the foreground, firing on the Americans, and Charlestown, on fire, is shown in the background. Breeds Hill and Bunker Hill are at the right.

Bunker Hill, which gave its name to the battle that followed. They passed on to Breeds Hill, where the surprised British saw them in the morning (June 17, 1775) throwing up breastworks. The British ships and Boston batteries opened fire on them. It took several hours to land the British soldiers, who were ordered to drive the Americans from the hill.

The Americans had little powder, and they were ordered not to fire until they could see the whites of the eyes of the enemy. When the British approached the fortification, the American fire mowed down so many of them that the rest retreated. A second attack was ordered, and a more frightful slaughter of the British resulted. The British then waited for reënforcements and began a third assault in three detachments. The Americans fought until their powder was exhausted and then used their muskets as clubs before they were driven from the field.

In proportion to the number of men engaged, this was one of the bloodiest battles of the Revolution. The British loss was

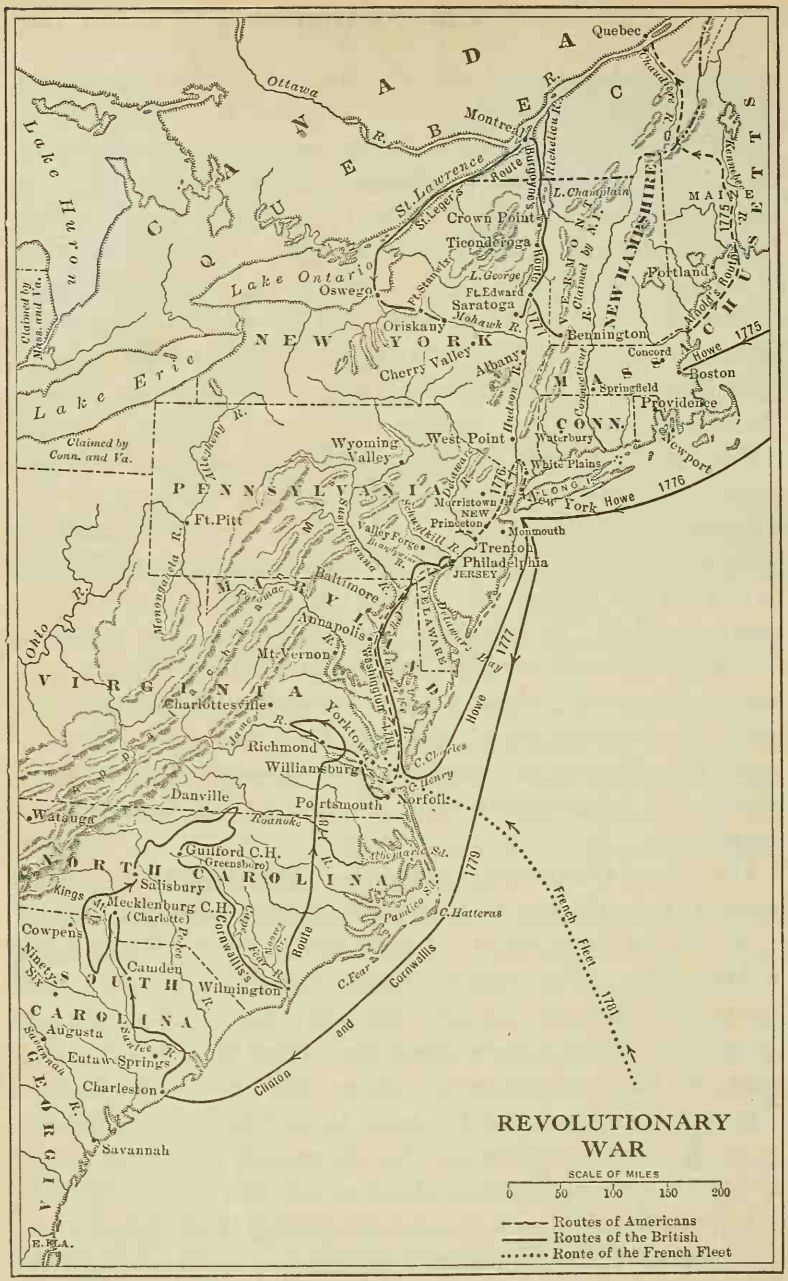
more than twice as great as that of the Americans. "I wish we could sell them another hill at the same price," said a colonial leader. No battle during the Revolution had more influence on the people. It showed Americans that their troops as long as their powder lasted could withstand greater numbers of trained European soldiers. When George Washington was told the story of Bunker Hill, he said: "The liberties of the country are safe."

The conduct of the heroes at Bunker Hill remains an example for later Americans. We need to be reminded of the fact that we have liberty only because such patriots laid down their lives on the field of battle.

The colonists seize supplies on Lake Champlain.—A courageous soldier by the name of Ethan Allen became colonel of a company known as the "Green Mountain Boys." He had been declared an outlaw by the royal governor of New York because he and his men fought the claims of that colony to land which is now in Vermont. He quickly led an attack on the forts at Ticonderoga and Crown Point on Lake Champlain. The garrisons there were surprised and were forced to surrender. When Allen was asked by whom the attack was authorized, he replied, "By the great Jehovah and the Continental Congress." Two hundred cannon and large quantities of powder and ball rewarded the brave party.

The second Continental Congress.—Every one of the thirteen colonies, from Georgia to New Hampshire, sent representatives to the second Continental Congress, which met in Philadelphia in May, 1775. This Congress hoped that Great Britain would grant their demands and stop the war. The members sent to George III what has been called the "Olive Branch Petition" asking for peace on just terms, but he would not receive it.

In the meantime, this Congress took steps for colonial defense. It planned to raise an army, to provide a navy, to secure money for the war, and to establish a post office. The best piece of work that it did was to appoint George Washington to be chief general of the Continental forces.


REVOLUTIONARY WAR
SCALE OF MILES
0 50 100 150 200
Routes of Americans
Routes of the British
Ronte of the French Fleet
CANADA
QUEBEC
Quebec
Ottawa R.
Montreal
Lake Huron
Lake Ontario
Lake Erie
St. Lawrence
St. Leger's Route
Burgoyne's Route
Richelieu R.
L. Champlain
Crown Point
Ticonderoga
L. George
Ft. Edward
Saratoga
Oswego
Ft. Stanwix
Oriskany
Mohawk R.
NEW YORK
Cherry Valley
Albany
Hudson R.
Bennington
Portland
Concord
Boston
Springfield
Providence
Newport
Waterbury
White Plains
Newark
Hudson R.
Connecticut R.
Claimed by N.H.
NEW HAMPSHIRE
MAINE
Kennebec R.
Arnold's Route
Howe 1775
Claimed by Mass. and Va.
Claimed by Conn. and Va.
Wyoming Valley
West Point
Morristown
NEW JERSEY
Princeton
Monmouth
Trenton
Philadelphia
Valley Forge
Brawlyn R.
Schuylkill R.
Delaware R.
Delaware Bay
Ft. Pitt
Monongahela R.
Allegheny R.
Susquehanna R.
Baltimore
Potomac R.
Annapolis
Mt. Vernon
Washington
Ohio R.
Rappahannock R.
Charlottesville
James R.
Yorktown
Richmond
Williamsburg
C. Charles
C. Henry
Norfolk
Danville
Portsmouth
Watauga
Roanoke
Albemarle Sd.
Guilford C.H. (Greensboro)
Salisbury
Kings Mt.
Mecklenburg C.H. (Charlotte)
Cowpens
Ninety Six
Camden
Wilmington
Cornwallis
Cape Fear R.
Pamlico Sd.
C. Hatteras
C. Fear
Pee Dee R.
Santee R.
Augusta
Eutaw Springs
Charleston
Savannah
Savannah R.
Clinton and Cornwallis
Howe 1777
Howe 1779
French Fleet 1781
E.F.L.A.

Washington takes command.—Washington took command of the Continental Army at Cambridge, Massachusetts (July 3, 1775), one year and one day before the Declaration of Independence. He had nothing but untrained militia to fight the regular British army. All military service was voluntary and usually for less than a year. He never had during the war a regular army of men enlisted to fight until its close. Many soldiers were anxious to return to their farms. Others were impatient because they were not fighting. Washington started to drill the fourteen thousand volunteers into an army and he tried to keep them busy by extending the fortifications.

If the British had sallied out of Boston to attack Washington, he would have had to flee because he did not have enough powder and ball for resistance. His men lacked cannon with which to besiege the city. If he had explained to his countrymen why he lay inactive for months, the British would have learned the reason.

Expedition to Canada.—In the fall while Washington was besieging Boston (1775), the colonists sent two small armies to Canada, hoping that they might conquer it or induce it to join them in resisting the British government. Richard Montgomery, the American commander, was killed in the unsuccessful assault on Quebec, and Benedict Arnold, who also showed great bravery, was wounded. No direct benefit came from this undertaking. Canada did not join the colonies.

Indirectly, however, there was benefit, for this expedition forced the new British commander, Sir William Howe, to divide his army into two parts, one detachment being needed to defend Canada. When the attempt was made the next year to reunite them, the Americans were able to win one of the greatest battles of the Revolution, as we shall see in the next chapter. History teaches a valuable lesson in showing that seeming defeat is sometimes really victory.

How supplies came; the evacuation of Boston.—The colonists at first had no navy and no money with which to build ships.

Washington himself commissioned a little fleet of fishing vessels to intercept supplies for the British army in Boston. Soon after Thanksgiving Day (1775) one of this fleet captured a British brig loaded with military stores. There were thirty-one tons of musket balls, two thousand muskets, and barrels of gunpowder. Washington called this capture "an instance of divine favor." George III thought otherwise.

Because of lack of roads the cannon captured in the spring at Ticonderoga and Crown Point could not be sent to Boston until the snow came. They were then brought on forty-two sleds drawn by eighty yoke of oxen. Washington now had sufficient cannon and ammunition to justify him in seizing and fortifying Dorchester Heights, which overlook Boston from the south. The British commander saw that he could not now hold the city, sc he sailed away with all his army to Halifax, Nova Scotia (March, 1776). He carried with him one thousand inhabitants of Boston who took the side of the British government and were called loyalists. They did not dare to remain behind for fear of losing their lives as well as their property.

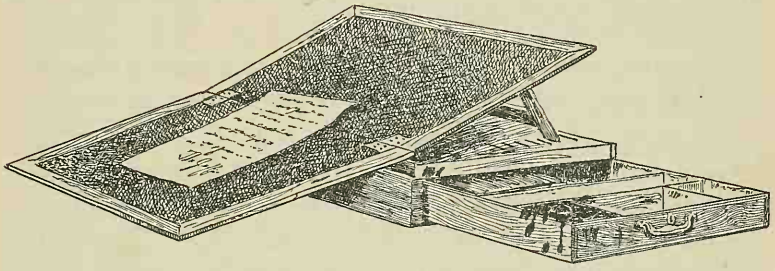
Increase of desire for complete independence.—The colonists heard three items of news from abroad which made more of them determined to declare themselves independent. These were: (1) the rejection of the "Olive Branch Petition," (2) the proclamation of the king ordering that the rebellion be suppressed and the traitors brought to justice, and (3) the dispatch to America of numerous war vessels and all available troops. Four thousand of these soldiers were hired Germans, called Hessians because many of them came from the state of Hesse-Cassel (hĕs′ käs′el). The use of these hirelings especially angered the colonists. "Well, brother rebel," said a southern member of the Continental Congress to a member from New England, "we have now got a sufficient answer to our petition. I want nothing more, but am ready to declare ourselves independent."

The Declaration of Independence.—The colonies declared their independence of Great Britain by a document adopted by the

second Continental Congress on July 4, 1776. The legislature of North Carolina was the first to authorize her representatives to vote for independence. Virginia made the motion for independence in the Congress, and Massachusetts seconded it.

The most famous lines in the document, which is known as the Declaration of Independence, are:

"We hold these truths to be self-evident: that all men are created equal; that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable rights; that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. That, to secure these rights, governments are instituted among men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed."



JEFFERSON'S WRITING DESK

Now in the Congressional Library at Washington. On this desk Jefferson wrote the Declaration of Independence.

Thomas Jefferson (1743–1826) was the author of the Declaration, which is a demand for the natural rights of man and for government based on the consent of the governed. It is also a censure of George III for interfering with such government by unfair laws, taxation, trials without jury, and armed troops. Jefferson voiced the ideas of all lovers of liberty in such clear and imperishable language that some of his sentences are almost as well known as common passages in the Bible. What Jefferson wrote in this Declaration has since affected human action throughout the world. Parts of the Declaration are to-day known by children in Korea and China. "Author of the Declaration of American Independence" comes first on Jefferson's monument.

John Hancock, of Boston, president of the Congress at Philadelphia which adopted the Declaration of Independence, signed his name to the document in letters so large that he said George III could read it without spectacles.

Change in government.—The Declaration of Independence called the new nation the "United States of America." Each of the thirteen colonies became a state. On the advice of John Adams, often called the "Statesman of the Revolution," each state provided for its own government as if it had been a separate nation.

Three of the states, Massachusetts, Connecticut, and Rhode Island, made but little change in their colonial charters. Almost all the alteration needed was to omit the king's name from public documents, and substitute for it the word "people." Nine states made new constitutions. These usually contained a "bill of rights," that is, a statement of the self-evident or natural rights of human beings, such as the right to free speech, to private ownership of property, to trial by jury, and to worship as they chose. The new state governments were especially forbidden to take away any of the natural rights of man. The state constitutions provided for an executive known as the governor, a legislature or lawmaking body, and judges to decide questions of law and justice.

Eight days after the Declaration of Independence, a committee began to draw up Articles for a Confederation or loose union of states. These Articles were not finished until the next year, and they did not become binding until the last state signed them (1781). The Confederation was, however, in practical existence after independence was declared, or the war could not have been managed. The Articles of Confederation provided for a central Congress composed of representatives of all the states. This body was given the right to determine peace and war, make treaties, borrow money, issue currency, establish post offices, call on the states for an army, build a navy, and ask for money "for the common good." All the thirteen states had equal voting power.

The Congress of the Confederation thus formed had no power to compel the states to obey its orders, but it was then thought that every state would want to do what was right. It was not then realized that different states might have opposite ideas of "what was right."

Summary of Points of Emphasis for Review.—(1) Lexington and Concord and the reason for the fighting there, (2) effect on colonies outside of New England, (3) Bunker Hill and its meaning, (4) Ethan Allen at Lake Champlain, (5) what the second Continental Congress did, (6) unpreparedness of colonists, (7) expedition to Canada, (8) evacuation of Boston, (9) three events that made the colonists desire independence, (10) Declaration of Independence, (11) the states and the Confederation.

Activities.—Draw a map, showing Lexington, Concord, Boston harbor, Boston, Bunker Hill, Dorchester Heights, the position of the British ships. If you prefer, use a sand pile to show these.

Imagine yourself Paul Revere and tell the class about your experiences on the night of April 18, 1775.

Suppose you had been attending a Lexington school (April 19, 1775), how would you have described the minutemen and the events of the day in a letter to a friend in a Boston school?

Be able to give the class and your home circle an interesting account of the battle of Bunker Hill.

Read the Declaration of Independence. Select its three most striking thoughts. How many times is the Deity mentioned? What is the last word in the Declaration?

Read Longfellow's *Paul Revere's Ride*, Emerson's *Concord Hymn*, O. W. Holmes's *Lexington* and *Grandmother's Story of Bunker Hill Battle*. Select from any one of these poems fifteen lines which you think give the best picture.

References for Teachers.—Martyn, *Artemas Ward, the First Commander in Chief of the American Revolution;* Wrong, *Washington and his Comrades in Arms* (Chron. of Am.); Van Tyne, *Am. Rev.* I.–V.; Trevelyan, *Am. Rev.*, Part I.; Fiske, *Am. Rev.*, I., 117–197; Sparks, *Men Who Made the Nation*, 79–118; Channing, *Hist. of the U. S.*, III., 155–215; Greene, *Foundations of Am. Nationality*, XIX., XX.; Hart, *Am. Hist. Told by Contemporaries*, II., 454–463, 472–479, 481–483, 530–543, 546–554; Fisher, *True Story Am. Rev.*, 258–270; Wilson, Ford, or Lodge, *George Washington.*

For Pupils.—Scudder, *George Washington;* Fiske, *War of Independence*, 85–103; Elson, *Side Lights on Am. Hist.*, I., 1–23; Coffin, *Boys of '76*, 16–81; Hart, *Camps and Firesides of the Revolution*, 191–212; Foote and Skinner, *Makers and Defenders of Am.*, 31–56; Hawthorne, *Grandfather's Chair*, 168–226; Thompson, *Green Mountain Boys* (fiction).

CHAPTER XIII

PROGRESS OF THE REVOLUTION

The fighting shifts to the middle colonies.—General Howe, the British commander, sailed from Halifax to New York, as Washington had prophesied. Washington drew up his army on and near Brooklyn Heights, to defend the city. Howe with a larger force defeated detachments of the American army in skirmishes which are called the battle of Long Island. Washington could have been trapped there by the British fleet if he had not shown rare skill in transporting his army across the East River at night in a fog.

STATUE OF NATHAN HALE
Erected at Yale University in 1914.

A young graduate of Yale College, Nathan Hale, volunteered to try to learn for Washington what the British would do next. He secured valuable information, but he was caught and hanged as a spy. On the scaffold he said: "I only regret that I have but one life to lose for my country."

There followed "the times that try men's souls." The British captured Fort Washington, near the north end of Manhattan Island, and its garrison of 3000 men. Washington, after a skirmish at

White Plains, north of New York, retreated into New Jersey and barely escaped capture by crossing the Delaware River into Pennsylvania. At the end of his retreat, he had only 3000 soldiers. Many people became faint-hearted and declared their allegiance to Great Britain.

Battles at Trenton and Princeton.—Washington realized the importance of doing something to encourage his soldiers and the people. He learned that a detachment of Hessians was stationed at Trenton to keep him from recrossing the Delaware. On Christmas night (1776), with a part of his men, he forced his way through floating blocks of ice on the Delaware to the New Jersey side. They then marched eight miles through sleet and rain to Trenton, surprised the Hessians, captured 1000 of them, and took them across the river.

Washington then crossed again to New Jersey and found himself confronted with a large British army that had hastily been sent there. All one night his watch fires were kept burning brightly while his army slipped away. The next morning he won a victory over a part of the British forces at Princeton. He then went into winter quarters at Morristown, New Jersey.

Trouble in raising money.—The colonies, always jealous of their rights in taxation, refused even to their own central Congress the right to collect taxes. Washington wrote to Robert Morris, a wealthy Philadelphia merchant and member of Congress, that unless money and men could be raised at once, "I think the game is pretty nearly up." Morris made New Year's calls (January 1, 1777) in Philadelphia to borrow money, and he sent Washington $50,000 that morning. His position as Superintendent of Finance and his continued activity in raising money for the army caused him to be called "the financier of the Revolution."

Congress borrowed what it could in France and Holland. It issued paper money called "continental currency," which was a promise to pay the bearer in gold or silver. The states also printed great quantities of paper money. This inflation made it

harder to get supplies for the army. Washington's men sometimes went hungry when they could offer only continentals, while British soldiers near them had plenty of bread and meat in return for gold.

When people had to give $100 a pound for tea they needed sound patriotism to keep from wondering why they had refused to pay the British duty of three pence a pound. So much paper money was issued that it finally became a joke. One man blanketed his dog with these bills. "Not worth a continental" became a synonym for worthlessness.

British plans for driving a wedge.—The British had taken possession of the harbor and city of New York as a base for driving a wedge for separating New England from the rest of the colonies. They thought that New England was the cause of the rebellion and that it would not spread if a wedge could be driven between the New England colonies and the rest. The British planned to have three of their forces drive wedges (1777) in order to keep the patriot armies separated. It is necessary to know this plan because it resulted in one of the decisive battles of the world's history.

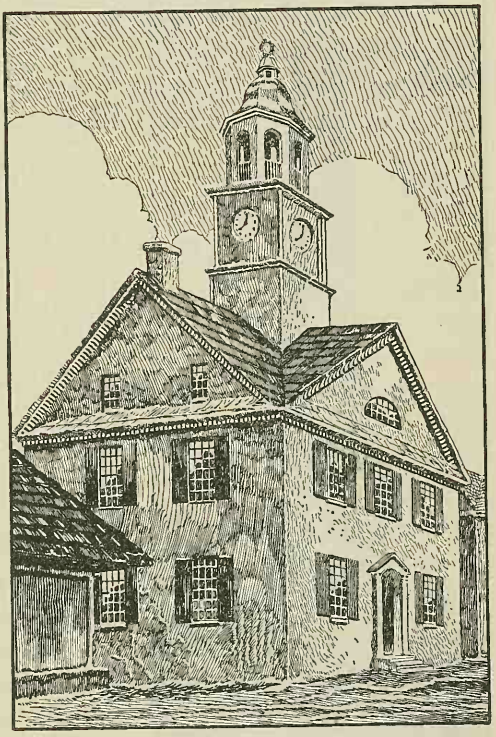
I. The first force, aided by the British fleet, was to move up the Hudson River from New York to Albany. The British army in New York was so much larger than Washington's army that it seemed easy to drive this wedge.

II. Colonel St. Leger (sānt lĕj'er), with a force of British and Indians from Canada, was to land at Oswego on Lake Ontario, march from there to Fort Schuyler (skī'ler)—near the modern city of Rome, New York—and then proceed along the Mohawk River to Albany.

III. General Burgoyne (bûr-goin') with an army of 9000 men was to drive a wedge from the north, advancing from Montreal to Albany by way of Lake Champlain and the upper Hudson.

The result of the British plans.—I. The plan for driving the wedges was made in London, 3000 miles away. But General

Howe, who was in command of the British forces at New York, had a plan of his own that he determined to try first. He sailed with his army to the head of Chesapeake Bay, marched overland to Philadelphia, then the capital of the United States, and captured it. Washington fought two hard battles with Howe — at Brandywine and at Germantown (just north of Philadelphia, now a part of the city)—but was defeated in both. Washington's activity, however, kept Howe from attempting to drive the wedge up the Hudson until it was too late.

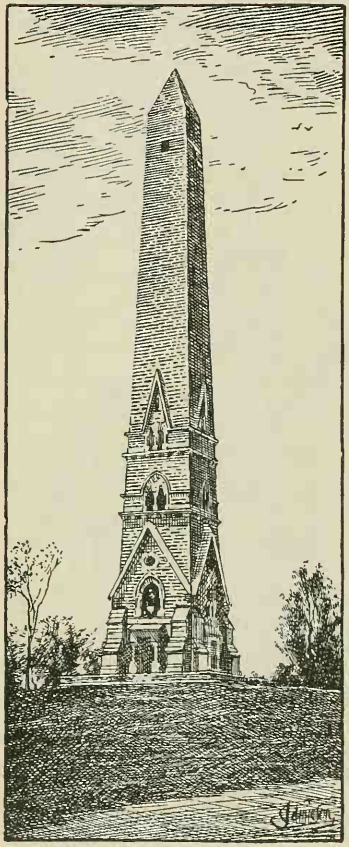


COUNTY COURTHOUSE, YORK, PENNSYLVANIA
Where Congress sat during the British occupation of Philadelphia. Notice the old-fashioned small panes of glass.

II. Colonel St. Leger came, as had been planned, and attacked Fort Schuyler. General Nicholas Her'kimer, in command of the patriot forces of central New York, marched to its relief. He was fatally wounded in the battle of Oris'kany, but he held the field until reënforcements came. St. Leger's force fled back to Canada.

III. Burgoyne came south up Lake Champlain and captured the two important forts of Crown Point and Ticonderoga. As he came farther south, his serious troubles began. His cannon and the trees which the Americans felled in his path delayed

him so that he was fifty days marching seventy-five miles. In order to get needed provisions, he sent a detachment of his German soldiers into Vermont to procure them. The New Hampshire militia, under John Stark, almost annihilated them in the battle of Bennington, Vermont (August 16, 1777).



SCHUYLERVILLE MONUMENT

Commemorating the battle of Saratoga. On three sides there are statues of Gates, Schuyler, and Morgan. The fourth niche is left vacant because of Arnold's later disgrace.

Militia now swarmed in from New England and New York to aid in the contest with Burgoyne. Defeated in two attempts to break through, he was compelled to surrender his whole army at Saratoga (October 17, 1777). General Horatio Gates was then in command of the American forces, but the credit for the victory is more largely due to other generals—Philip Schuyler, Daniel Morgan, and Benedict Arnold.

The result of this battle of Saratoga prevented a wedge from being driven between New England and the middle colonies. It has been called one of the decisive battles of the world.

The winter at Valley Forge.—The winter following Burgoyne's defeat (1777–1778) was passed by Washington and his army of 11,000 in camp at Valley Forge, twenty miles northwest of Philadelphia. His men suffered intensely from cold, hunger, and lack of clothing. Washington said that the footsteps of his soldiers "might be traced by the blood

from their feet." At one time twenty-eight hundred of Washington's men could not report for duty because of lack of shoes and clothing. His army knew that the British soldiers were spending the winter comfortably at Philadelphia. Their leader offered Washington's men good pay, generous meals, and warm clothing if they would take the oath of allegiance to Great Britain and join her army. Some accepted the invitation but most of the American soldiers spurned it and made the battle with cold and hunger at Valley Forge one of the great patriotic victories of American history.

Baron Steu'ben, a famous Prussian officer (picture, p. 211), came to Valley Forge in midwinter and put the army through such thorough military training that by spring the men could be handled like veterans. He taught them the use of the bayonet, which they had hitherto left at home or used for cooking their food over an open fire. Next year a band of soldiers under Gen. Anthony Wayne showed that they knew how to use their bayonets. They captured the British stronghold of Stony Point on the Hudson at the point of the bayonet, having rushed forward with unloaded muskets.

The French alliance.—The victory at Saratoga made the French think that with the help of their fleet and army the Americans could defeat Great Britain. The French felt keenly the loss of their North American lands, and they also felt deep sympathy for the colonists in their struggle for liberty.

After the Declaration of Independence, Congress had sent Benjamin Franklin to France as a commissioner to look after the interests of the United States. It was here that he performed a service to his country second only to that of Washington. He used his unusual tact and ability to please the French people, and he soon became the most popular man in Paris. The French had become very much interested in human rights, and they looked on Franklin as the personification of the rights of man. The people followed him on the streets, applauded him in public, and put his portrait in their homes and on their snuffboxes.

So popular was he that the king did not like to refuse his requests. Before the alliance, Franklin had asked for money and arms for his country, and the king had secretly given him both.

Within four months after the victory at Saratoga, France made an open alliance with the United States to fight Great Britain until she yielded and granted her former colonies independence. This alliance helped to change the world's history.

The Marquis de Lafayette (dē lȧ-fā-yĕt′), a young French nobleman, had already (1777) crossed the ocean to help America. Congress made him a major general. Washington liked him and repeatedly gave him important commands. America will always remember him as a Good Samaritan who not only gave his services freely but also spent his own money to assist her. Two brave Polish officers, Kosciusko and Pulaski, also came to fight for the Americans.

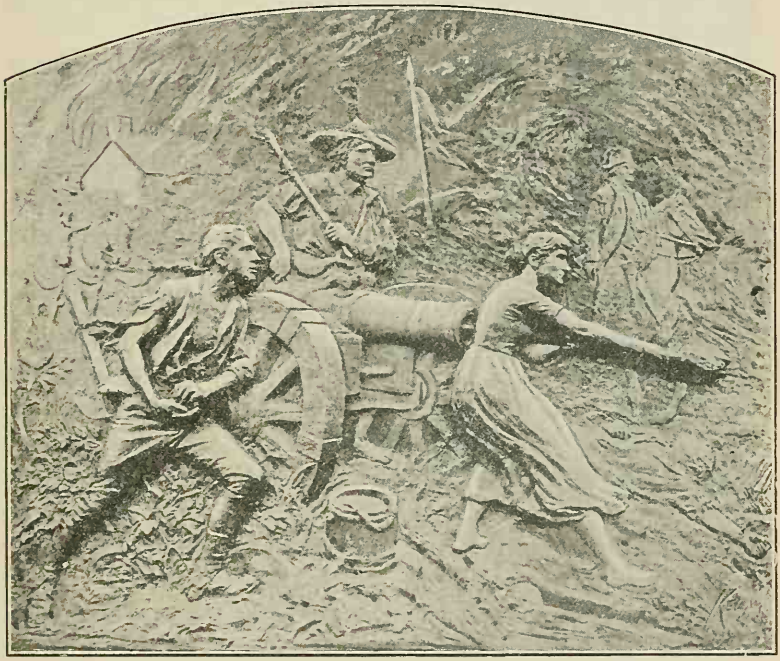
Battle of Monmouth.—One immediate result of the French treaty was the evacuation of Philadelphia. The British heard that a French fleet was coming, and they feared that it would sail up to Philadelphia and bombard the town.

When the British soldiers marched across New Jersey toward New York, Washington planned to have Lafayette command a detachment to attack them on the march. Unfortunately, General Charles Lee, who held a general's commission from Congress, reached the field in time to claim the command of the attacking force. The Americans caught the British at Monmouth, New Jersey, and would have won a victory if Lee had not given an order to retreat. Washington reached the front in time to save the Americans from defeat. He was enraged at Lee's conduct, and it is said that this was the only time in the entire war when Washington lost his temper. Charles Lee was probably a traitor and meant to aid the British. He was tried by a court martial and suspended from the army.

Patriots and loyalists.—We shall get a wrong idea of the Revolution if we think that all the colonists wished to resist Great Britain. There were three classes of colonists: (1) the

patriots or Whigs, who were willing to fight for independence; (2) the loyalists or Tories, who were loyal to the king; (3) the neutrals, who had no desire for war.

The Revolution was not merely a war against Great Britain; it was also partly a civil war. The strife between the loyalists



MOLLY PITCHER LOADING A CANNON IN THE BATTLE OF MONMOUTH

Relief on the monument at Freehold, New Jersey, the site of the battle. When one of the American artillerymen fell, his wife, who had been carrying water for the men to drink, took his place in working his cannon. The cannon of those days were muzzle-loaders; the charge was set on fire through a small hole on top, covered as shown in the picture by the man's thumb so that no chance spark from his torch could set it off too soon.

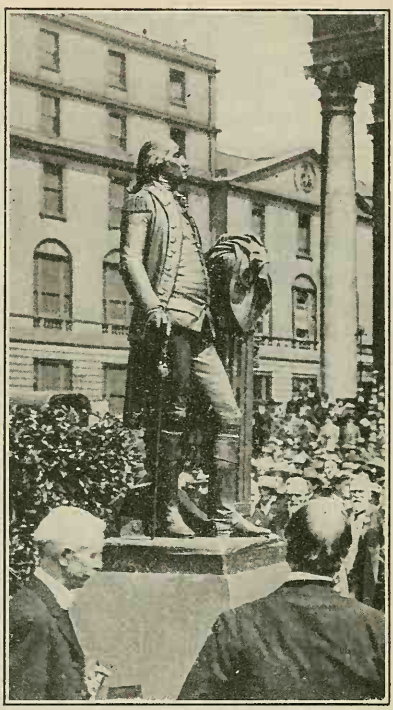
and patriots became very bitter. Each class was sure that it was right. It has been estimated that 50,000 loyalists either joined the British army or aided it by forming companies of militia, and that there were sometimes more colonists fighting in the British than in the patriot army. Many loyalists fled to Canada, leaving their possessions. Some became raiders who

destroyed the stock and crops on the farms of the patriots and roused the Indians to commit terrible massacres. One of these was at Wyoming Valley, Pennsylvania (1778), where the Iroquois scalped 227 colonists; another massacre was at Cherry Valley, New York. Washington sent an expedition, under General Sullivan, that defeated the Iroquois and drove most of the survivors into Canada.

Opposition to Washington.—Even the patriots were not united. Washington was handicapped by the lack of trained men and supplies, which Congress was powerless to furnish. Some, not understanding his difficulties, thought that he ought to take the offensive instead of the defensive. As the war dragged on, he became unpopular. There was a conspiracy of influential men to try to persuade Congress to make some one else commander in chief. Those who wrongly gave General Gates all the credit for the victory at Saratoga said that Gates could win battles while Washington was losing them and that Gates ought to be made commander in chief. In response to popular demand, Gates was later sent to the South to check the British, but he was defeated at Camden, South Carolina (1780), and made a record flight of 200 miles in three days. People laughed so much about this that it is said he might have committed suicide if Washington had not sent him an appreciative letter.

Washington's qualities.—Washington was without doubt the ablest of the American generals, and he was serving without pay. Ingratitude under such conditions would have caused many to resign. The fact that he did not was due to his patience, love of country, and high sense of duty. Napoleon was a more brilliant general, but he could never have filled Washington's shoes. No one has surpassed Washington in character, which alone makes all other qualities worth while. He could be depended on one hundred times out of one hundred to take the path of duty. If he had once failed, America might not have secured her independence. For these qualities George Washington stands in the front rank of the world's greatest men. Eng-

land, his former foe, welcomes statues of him in her own land and is proud that he sprang from her blood. An American visitor in England asked an English boy: "Who are your heroes?" The boy replied: "Alfred the Great and George Washington, sir."



STATUE OF WASHINGTON
Unveiled in London in May, 1921.

Naval warfare.—Congress provided a small navy which was never a match for the powerful British war vessels which controlled the sea. The American vessels did their best work in capturing British merchant ships. Captain John Barry (1745–1803), an American of Irish birth, has the honor of being the first commissioned officer of a naval squadron of the United States. He captured two British vessels against great odds. He also fought the last naval battle of the war and became later the senior captain of the navy with the title of Commodore.

The battle which is most generally remembered in the naval warfare of the Revolution was a result of the French alliance. John Paul Jones (1747–1792), a Scotchman who had settled in Virginia, became the naval hero of the Revolution. He went to France and persuaded the French king to let him have five ships. With this little navy he sailed along the west coast of Ireland and Scotland, destroying much shipping. On the east coast of England, his vessel, the *Bon Homme Richard* (bŏ-nŏm′ rē-shär′), attacked a stronger British man-of-war, the

Sera'pis. Two of the *Bon Homme Richard's* guns burst at the first shot. Seeing that she was crippled, the British captain asked: "Have you struck your colors?" Jones replied: "I have not yet begun to fight." He succeeded in lashing the two ships together with his own hands. He and his men jumped on

THE BON HOMME RICHARD TAKES THE SERAPIS
The Americans are shown in the act of boarding the enemy.

board the *Serapis* and captured her after a desperate battle (1779). This was the most remarkable naval contest of the Revolution. The *Bon Homme Richard* was so much injured that she sank a few hours later, but Jones reached port safely in the *Serapis,* with his crew and his prisoners.

The interior.—We must now turn from the sea and the strip of land along the Atlantic to note what happened between the Appalachian Mountains and the Mississippi River. The Rev-

olutionary War was fought in that region as well as in the thirteen colonies along the coast. Much of this interior was covered with a growth of noble trees and abounded in wild turkeys, deer, bear, and buffalo. It was the home of thousands of warlike Indians who were allies of the British.

The French had occupied parts of this region for many years. They founded such towns as Detroit′, Vincennes (vin-sĕnz′) on the Wabash (wô′băsh) River, and Kaskas′kia and Caho′kia on the eastern side of the Mississippi River not far from St. Louis. When the interior was ceded to Great Britain (p. 138), many of the French continued to live in those towns, but they were under British control. These outposts kept the Indians friendly to Great Britain and served as a base for supplies and for sending the red men to attack the pioneer western settlements.

American settlements in the interior.—Before the Revolution, the Americans had few settlements west of the Appalachians. The most important was at Pittsburgh. The Watau′ga settlement, in what is now northeastern Tennessee, was founded (1769) by James Robertson, one of the greatest of the pioneers. He was later joined by John Sevier (se-vēr′), called the "game cock of the Tennessee" because he was so successful in fighting Indians.

The first settlement in Kentucky was at Harrodsburg (1774). It was soon abandoned for a year because the Indians were on the warpath. The settlers returned the following year, and since then Harrodsburg has been a permanent settlement. Daniel Boone, the best known of the Kentucky pioneers, made the next settlement (1775) at Boonesboro on the Kentucky River. The first wedding there took place in the year of the Declaration of Independence. The wedding guests danced by the light of buffalo tallow candles and ate the first watermelons grown there.

The story of Boone's life is almost as interesting as that of Robinson Crusoe. When Boone was a boy, he moved from eastern Pennsylvania to western North Carolina. He was using a rifle at the age of twelve, and he loved to hunt better than to till

DANIEL BOONE ESCAPING FROM THE INDIANS

From an old print. This picture shows Boone ramming a charge into his rifle while on the run (see note under picture on page 90).

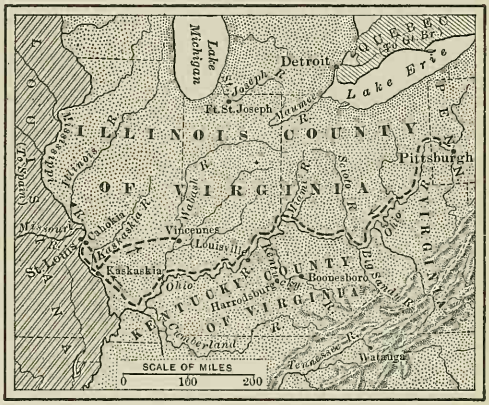
the soil. One spring when the corn needed hoeing, he started to hunt in what is now eastern Kentucky. He shot wild turkeys, buffalo, deer, and "panthers." There is nothing more thrilling in American history than the story of Boone's many adventures and escapes from death at the hands of the Indians.

The British repeatedly sent the red men into Kentucky to destroy its early settlements. We must see how steps taken for their defense helped win the Revolution and secure the Northwest.

George Rogers Clark (1752–1818).—The western hero of the Revolution was a tall, light-haired, blue-eyed young Virginian who came to Kentucky as a surveyor (1775). He had imagination. He could look beyond the present time and place and plan for the future. Boone fought the Indians when they came and escaped from them when they captured him. He could not see beyond his surroundings; but Clark tried to plan so that neither

the Indians nor the British could come to molest the settlers in Kentucky.

By the charter of 1609 (p. 50), Virginia claimed Kentucky and the Northwest. Clark made the dangerous journey from Kentucky to Virginia to tell Governor Patrick Henry that if this great western region was worth claiming, it was worth protecting. Virginia gave Clark the money and supplies for a small expedition into the Northwest for the purpose of capturing the British posts that sent the Indians into Kentucky. He started from Pittsburgh (1778) with a force of about two hundred and made his way down the Ohio to an island opposite the site of Louisville, where he drilled his men for the great undertaking. In the last week of June he told them for the first time that he would lead them 600 miles farther to attack Kaskaskia. Some deserted, but one hundred and eighty went with him to a point near the mouth of the Tennessee River, where they landed and made a six-day overland march to Kaskaskia. Clark surprised the fort and captured it at night (July 4, 1778).



CLARK'S ROUTE

He was the first to tell the French in that region that France was now an ally of the United States. He treated them so well that they promised to be loyal to the Americans. A number of the French then aided in the capture of Cahokia and other posts in the vicinity. Father Gibault (zhē-bō′), a French priest, went on a mission for Clark to Vincennes, which then contained perhaps a thousand French inhabitants. This influential priest won

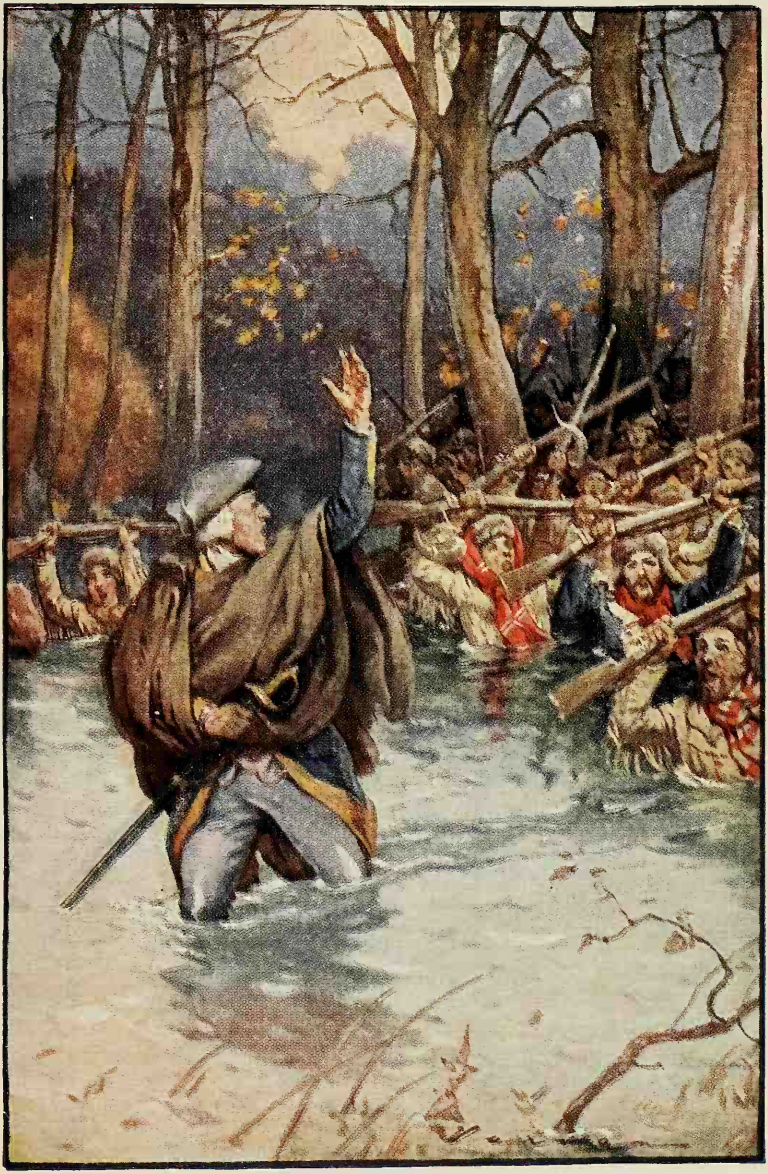
them to the side of the United States, and they raised its flag over the fort. Clark then sent a few soldiers there to hold it.

Colonel Henry Hamilton, the British commander at Detroit, was nicknamed the "Hair-Buyer" because he rewarded Indians who brought in American scalps. He came with a force of British and Indians and retook Vincennes early in the winter (1778). He planned to continue his march to Kaskaskia to capture Clark, and to destroy the Kentucky settlements in the spring. Before Hamilton could leave Vincennes, winter rains flooded the flat country so as to make it seem impossible to cross.

A wonderful march.—Clark determined to march to Vincennes before the British could come to attack him. He reported that the distance by the route which he took was 240 miles. He started (February 5, 1779) with 130 men, 60 of whom were his newly made French friends. All the streams had overflowed, and the men had to march some of the way through water varying in depth from their ankles to their shoulders.

Clark showed genius in keeping up the spirit of his men in this almost impossible march. He had the different detachments compete in killing game and in taking turns as hosts in providing a feast for the rest. On February 22 Clark noticed that the men after struggling in the ice-cold water, sometimes up to their shoulders, seemed on the point of giving up. He says: "I viewed their confusion for about one minute, whispered to those near me to do as I did, immediately took some water in my hand, poured on some powder, blacked my face, gave a war whoop, and marched into the water without saying a word. The party gazed and fell in, one after another, like a flock of sheep. I ordered those near me to begin a favorite song of theirs. It soon passed through the line and the whole went on cheerfully."

In order to reach Vincennes on the last day of the march, the men had to struggle five miles through an icy lake formed by the overflow of the Wabash River. When the water nearly reached their shoulders, Clark "sent some of the strongest men forward with orders to pass the word back that the water was getting



EXPEDITION OF GEORGE ROGERS CLARK, THE HERO OF THE NORTHWEST

He is shown leading his men through the flooded lands to Vincennes to wrest the Northwest Territory from Great Britain.

shallow." He says that "this stratagem had its desired effect. The men encouraged by it exerted themselves beyond their abilities." The man who showed such qualities of leadership was only twenty-six years old. If this wonderful march to Vincennes had happened in ancient Greece, her poets would have made the event immortal in song.

Vincennes was completely surprised and it surrendered after a short resistance (February 24, 1779).

Results.—From the day of Clark's capture of Vincennes, the Northwest Territory (except the basin draining into the Great Lakes) has never been held by a foreign power. Many Indians came to Clark to ask for peace. His victory prevented them from concentrating their full force on the western frontiers of the Atlantic states. Many settlers flocked to Kentucky the next year (1780) after Clark's victory and helped to secure a firmer hold on the interior.

From the Northwest Territory which was gained as a result of the war in the West, have been formed the states of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, and Wisconsin. If this territory had remained in the possession of Great

CLARK'S COUNCIL WITH THE INDIANS
Painting in the Capitol of Illinois.

Britain at the end of the war, our country might never have expanded to the Pacific. Measured by results, Clark's expedition to the Northwest and capture of Vincennes deserve to be ranked among the world's great military campaigns. We must not forget that the West played its part in winning the Revolution and in making its winning more worth while.

War in the South.—The South played its part as well as the West and the North, but the South had to contend with a large proportion of loyalists. The royal governor of North Carolina raised 1500 loyalist militia who fought a battle against 1000 patriots at Moores Creek (1776), near the present town of Fayetteville. The patriots won the battle and captured 850 loyalists with many supplies and a war chest containing a large amount of money. Encouraged by this victory, the patriots quickly took control of the whole state.

When the British fleet and army tried (1776) to capture Fort Sullivan, which defended the harbor of Charleston, Colonel William Moultrie (mo͞o'trĭ), commanding a South Carolina regiment, withstood a ten-hour bombardment by ships which had six times as many guns as the fort. Assisted by other regiments of South Carolina patriots, Moultrie crippled some of the ships, drove away the rest, and checked the British army so that it withdrew. This heroic defense cheered all the colonies and so discouraged the British that they did not again move against the South for nearly three years.

Great Britain determines to hold the South.—Great Britain did not succeed in holding either New England or the middle colonies. New York was the only northern city in her possession four years after the beginning of the Revolution. She then determined to carry the war to the South, where there were many loyalists to aid her in taking and holding the country. She thought that she would still have the most valuable colonial possessions in the world if she could retain the South and the interior.

The British had taken Savannah (1778), which they held as a base. They now (1780) sent a large force which captured

Charleston and General Benjamin Lincoln's colonial army of 3000 which defended it. There was no longer a regular patriot force in the South, but small bands of patriots continued to offer resistance. Thomas Sumter and Francis Marion, the latter called by the British the "Swamp Fox" because he was so difficult to catch, were two South Carolina leaders who held the British in some check by intercepting their supplies and keeping them in fear of sudden attacks. Loyalists in South Carolina wrecked the looms, killed the sheep, and burned the homes of the patriots, who turned the tables when they had the chance.

Dark days; treason of Arnold.—Men in the North as well as in the South were then discouraged, because the assistance of the French had not brought the speedy victory for which men hoped. Washington had remained for two years in the vicinity of New York, watching the British and fighting no battles. No one could foresee an end of the war.

At the time when many were despairing, there came an event which plunged the country into deeper gloom and made Washington ask: "Whom can we trust now?" Benedict Arnold made a bargain (September, 1780) with the British to surrender West Point to them for ten thousand gold guineas ($50,000) and a brigadier general's commission in the British army. Only an accident which caused the arrest of Major John André (ăn'drā), a young British officer who was carrying the treasonable papers, prevented the surrender. André was traveling through American territory in disguise, and was therefore a spy; he was hanged, but Arnold escaped to a British vessel. The British kept faith with him, paid him the money, and gave him the desired officer's commission. For his act, as Benjamin Franklin said, "this traitor is on the gibbet and will hang there in chains for all the ages."

Battle of Kings Mountain.—The gloomiest days of the Revolution were quickly followed by a brilliant victory in the South. Lord Cornwallis, the commander in chief of the southern British

army, had given orders to subdue the fighting patriots in the back counties. Major Ferguson, a British officer, threatened to burn their homes and hang their leaders if they did not submit. John Sevier, leader of the Watauga men, answered this threat by crossing the mountains with 500 western pioneers to fight the British. Soldiers from Virginia and both Carolinas came to their assistance. This joint force rushed up Kings Mountain, near the boundary between North and South Carolina, and overwhelmed Major Ferguson's detachment of the British army which had been sent to conquer them. Kings Mountain (October 7, 1780) is as noteworthy toward the end of the war as Bunker Hill was at the beginning. This battle marks the turn of the tide in favor of the patriots.

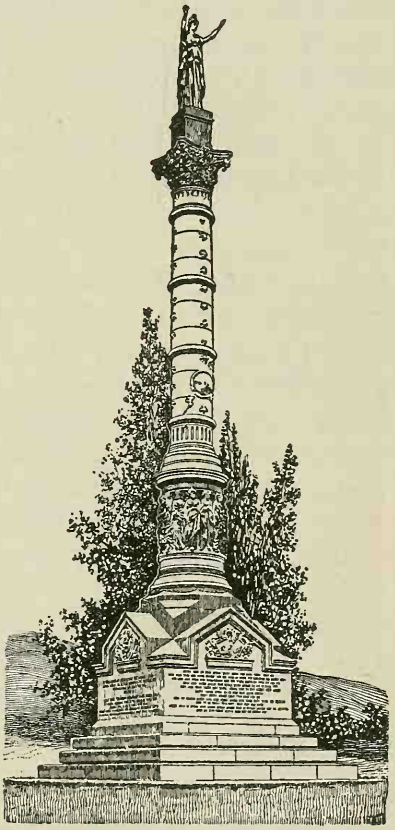
TRIANGULAR MONUMENT IN THE WATAUGA VALLEY

This monument, about six miles east of Johnson City, Tennessee, was erected in 1909 to commemorate three events: (1) the building of the first settler's fort west of the Appalachians, (2) the purchase from the Cherokee Indians of a vast tract of land in Kentucky and Tennessee, and (3) the meeting of the frontiersmen under their leaders, John Sevier, William Campbell, and Isaac Shelby, before marching to fight the decisive battle of Kings Mountain.

Last campaigns in the South.— Washington, after failing with Gates (p. 198), sent his ablest general, Nathanael Greene (picture, p. 211), to lead the American forces in the South, soon after the battle of Kings Mountain. He was ably assisted by General Daniel Morgan of Virginia, who won in less than an hour a brilliant victory over a detachment of the British at Cowpens (1781), about twenty miles west of Kings Mountain.

Greene was somewhat like Washington, who could win in the end as a result of seeming losses. In an eleven months' campaign

in the South, Greene fought a number of hard battles without winning a single one, yet English and American critics have called this campaign one of the most brilliant in American history. Although he was never strong enough to win a decisive victory over the British, he weakened their forces, used up their supplies, and finally made them retire to the seaport towns of Savannah, Charleston, and Yorktown.



Monument Commemorating the Battle of Yorktown

The battle of Yorktown.— In the battle of Guilford Courthouse, Greene inflicted such losses on the army of Cornwallis that it retired to the coast. Cornwallis then marched north to the peninsula of Yorktown in Virginia, where he hoped to receive supplies and reënforcements by sea.

Washington suddenly (August, 1781) received word from the French admiral that he was starting from the West Indies for Chesapeake Bay, but that he could not remain there long. Washington made the British forces in New York think that he was planning to attack them while he and a French army, which had previously landed at Newport, Rhode Island, rapidly marched to Yorktown. The French fleet arrived in time to keep Cornwallis from being rescued by the British fleet. Cornwallis was

trapped on the narrow Yorktown peninsula with his army of 8000. Washington at the head of an army of 16,000, about half of them French, came and shut off hope of escape by land. Cornwallis was soon forced to surrender (October 19, 1781). The British band played "The World Turned Upside Down," while the captured soldiers laid down their arms.

The surrender of Cornwallis practically ended the war of the Revolution. Great Britain could have fought longer, but British leaders opposed to the king were strong enough in Parliament to stop the unpopular contest. There was an agreement to cease hostilities and to appoint commissioners to arrange the terms of peace. We should remember that it is doubtful if we could have secured our independence at that time without the aid of French money and of the French fleet and army.

The treaty of peace.—Three American commissioners, Benjamin Franklin, John Adams, and John Jay, were sent to Paris to confer with the French and British on the terms of peace. The treaty of peace with Great Britain, signed by the American commissioners (1783), provided that the thirteen colonies should be "free, sovereign, and independent states." This was the object of the war. The treaty also gave to the United States the great interior territory west to the Mississippi. France gained but little for her sacrifice. Spain, which also had gone to war with Great Britain, received the territory of Florida, which then extended along the Gulf of Mexico almost to the Mississippi.

Washington resigns his commission.—Some of the soldiers wished to make Washington king at the end of the war, but he was indignant at such a proposal. The army was angry because Congress had not paid it, and there was danger that the soldiers might compel payment and take a step toward a military despotism. When Washington heard of this danger, he went before the officers and said, as he unfolded a paper containing his written address: "Gentlemen, you will permit me to put on my spectacles, for I have not only grown gray but almost blind in the

NORTH AMERICA
AFTER THE
REVOLUTION
SCALE OF MILES
0 200 400 600 800 1000
Present boundaries of Countries
Posts held by Great Britain until after 1795
REFERENCE
United States
British
In dispute between Great Britain and the United States
Spanish
French
Dutch
Danish
Longitude 100 West from 80 Greenwich
ARCTIC OCEAN
ARCTIC CIRCLE
Yukon R.
Mackenzie R.
Hudson Bay
HUDSON'S BAY COMPANY
Nelson R.
L. Winnipeg
Saskatchewan R.
Columbia R.
Sierra Nevada
Colorado R.
Missouri R.
Arkansas R.
Mississippi R.
Ohio R.
Rio Grande
Sierra Madre
Gulf of Mexico
Mexico
Yucatan
Belize
Mosquito Coast
Isthmus of Panama
Caribbean Sea
Jamaica
Haiti
Santo Domingo
Cuba
Havana
Bahama Is.
Florida
St. Augustine
Charleston
New Orleans
St. Louis
Kaskaskia
Detroit
Ft. Miami
Green Bay
Michilimackinac
Lake Michigan
Lake Erie
Lake Ontario
Niagara R.
Quebec
Montreal
Nova Scotia
Boston
New York
Philadelphia
Newfoundland
Miquelon & St. Pierre Is. (Fr.)
Bermuda Is. (Brit.)
Santo Domingo
Virgin Is.
Puerto Rico
Guadeloupe (Fr.)
Martinique (Fr.)
Curaçao (Dutch)
Orinoco R.
Andes Mts.
New Granada
Equator
Tropic of Cancer
Tropic of Capricorn
Pacific Ocean
Atlantic Ocean

WASHINGTON SAYS FAREWELL TO HIS OFFICERS AT NEW YORK

just before boarding a boat to take him across the Hudson River on his way home to Mount Vernon. From a painting by Andrew C. Gow, exhibited at the Louisiana Purchase Exposition (a world's fair) at St. Louis in 1904. The officers shown, from left to right, are Colonel Alexander Hamilton (p. 220); General Nathanael Greene (p. 208); Colonel Josiah Harmar, afterward (1789–1790) commander of the United States Army; General Thomas Sumter (p. 207); General Henry Knox (who is seen grasping General Washington's hand), a trusted officer, afterward (1785–1795) Secretary of War; and Baron Steuben (p. 195).

service of my country." His appeal drew tears from many and shamed those who would have liked to collect by force the money due them. So great was his influence that the soldiers disbanded and went home "without a settlement of their accounts or a farthing of money in their pockets."

After the treaty of peace had been signed and this danger from the army had passed, Washington resigned his commission as commander in chief and went to his home at Mount Vernon, Virginia, intending to live as a private citizen.

Summary of Points of Emphasis for Review.—(1) Fighting in middle colonies, (2) Long Island, Fort Washington, Trenton, and Princeton,

(3) lack of money and men, (4) "not worth a continental," (5) the British wedge and its results, (6) Valley Forge, (7) French alliance, (8) Lafayette, (9) Monmouth, (10) a civil war, (11) Indian massacres, (12) Washington and his qualities, (13) naval warfare, (14) the interior, (15) work of Daniel Boone and George Rogers Clark, (16) results of Clark's victory, (17) battle of loyalists and patriots at Moores Creek, (18) Moultrie's defense of Charleston, (19) British determination to hold the South, (20) success of the British, (21) Arnold's treason, (22) Kings Mountain, (23) Nathanael Greene, (24) French aid and Yorktown, (25) treaty of peace, (26) Washington resigns his commission.

Activities.—Draw a map showing the British wedges.

Explain why Saratoga ranks among the world's decisive battles.

Draw maps showing Boonesboro, Kings Mountain, Clark's route to Vincennes, Yorktown.

Write one hundred words about Daniel Boone as a pioneer in Kentucky.

Read Bryant's *Song of Marion's Men.*

Select any one of the following subjects and make a three-minute talk on it to the class:—Washington's Trials during the First Three Years of the Revolution; George Rogers Clark; How John Paul Jones took the *Serapis;* How the French helped America; The British Wedges; Arnold's Treason; Effects of Inflation of Money.

References for Teachers.—Wrong, *Washington and his Comrades in Arms* (Chron. of Am.); Trevelyan, *Am. Rev.,* Parts II. and III.; F. V. Greene, *Revolutionary War;* Fiske, *Am. Rev.,* I., 198–344, II., 1–290; Van Tyne, *Am. Rev.,* VII., X., XII., XIII., 269–333; Van Tyne, *Loyalists of the Rev.;* Sparks, *Men Who Made the Nation,* 1–46, 119–150; Channing, *Hist. of the U. S.,* III., 228–382; Greene, *Foundations of Am. Nationality,* XXI., XXII., XXIII.; Skinner, *Pioneers of the Old Southwest* (Chron. of Am.); Ogg, *Old Northwest* (Chron. of Am.); Roosevelt, *Winning of the West,* I., 134–307; Hart, *Am. Hist. Told by Contemporaries,* II., 554–590.

For Pupils.—Fiske, *War of Independence,* 103–191; Coffin, *Boys of '76,* 19–279; Hart, *Camps and Firesides of the Rev.,* 101, 106, 235–255, 267–309; Lodge and Roosevelt, *Hero Tales from Am. Hist.,* 19–41, 71–89; Foote and Skinner, *Makers and Defenders of America,* 74–110, 141–148, 162–167; McMurry, *Pioneers of the Mississippi Valley,* 68–83, 124–150, 283–326; Bruce, *Daniel Boone and the Wilderness Road;* Thwaites, *Daniel Boone;* Fiske-Irving, *Washington and his Country,* 306–508.

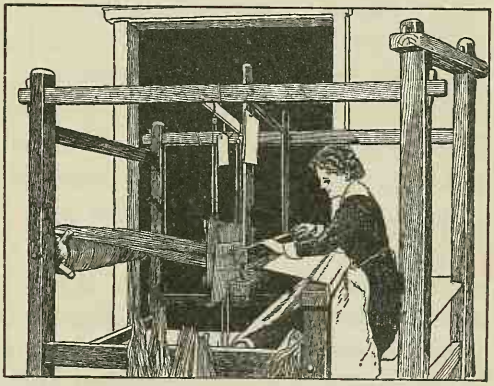
Fiction: Thompson, *Alice of Old Vincennes;* Cooper, *The Spy;* Churchill, *Richard Carvel;* Mitchell, *Hugh Wynne.*

CHAPTER XIV

THE PEOPLE, THE CONFEDERATION, AND THE NEW UNION

Women's work during the Revolution.—We often make the mistake of thinking that the greater part of a people engaged in a severe war are in the army. If the majority go to war, no war could long be waged. Where there is machinery to aid in producing food and in making arms and clothes for soldiers, it requires the labor of about five people to keep one soldier at the front. In the time of the Revolution there were no reapers and binders for the farm, no modern machines to spin thread and weave cloth. It is difficult to compute how many hand workers were then needed for each soldier.

In the colonies where there was most fighting the burden fell heavily on the women. Without their patriotic hard work, the war for independence could hardly have been won. The states were asked to furnish for every enlisted soldier a woolen blanket, suit of clothes, felt hat, two linen shirts, two pairs of woolen stockings, and two pairs of shoes. Women made most of these articles except the shoes. A little Massachusetts town sent to the army in



HAND LOOM USED IN WEAVING CLOTH FOR REVOLUTIONARY UNIFORMS

Alternate threads of the warp, seen at the left, are alternately raised and lowered by means of treadles. A shuttle carrying the weft or filling is thrown from side to side between the raised warp and the lowered warp, and the weft is beaten into place by a motion of the reed and batten—the heavy piece on which the woman's left hand is resting.

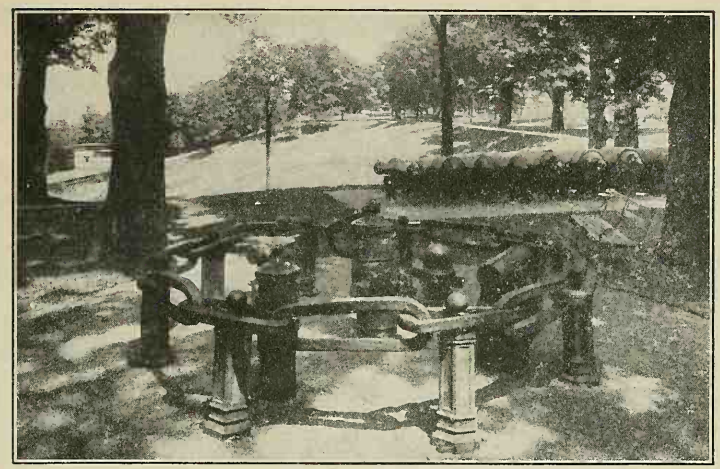
one month thirty blankets, sixty-seven shirts, and sixty-seven pairs of knitted hose. Girls of five assisted their mothers in household manufactures. If it had not been for the household spindles and looms worked by the women, the soldiers could not have been clothed. Most of the soldiers were farmers, and the women and children had to raise their food while the father was in the army.

Work of the men.—The majority of the men tilled the land. Some farmers were busier than usual because they tried to raise food enough for both the patriot and the British armies. Washington sometimes had to threaten to hang those who sold provisions to the British.

Some Americans made firearms for the war. Great Britain had forbidden the development of iron manufactures, but small furnaces and forges had sprung up from New Hampshire to South Carolina to meet the need of the farms and homes for simple iron implements and utensils. The Congress of the Confederation released from military service all workers in iron and steel. Firearms had been such a necessity in hunting and fighting the Indian that the colonists had learned how to make them. Factories for making arms were now erected, usually at a safe distance from the sea. Springfield, Massachusetts, and Waterbury, Connecticut, had their metal industries begun in this way. After the war, they made tools and hardware.

Increase in ingenuity.—British ships kept the United States from importing some needed articles, and the patriots had to make them or do without them. They learned how to cast cannon in molds. A chain to stretch across the Hudson at West Point was needed to keep British ships from ascending the river. In six weeks Americans finished this chain, which weighed 370,000 pounds. The colonel of a Georgia regiment said: "I have made all my own accouterments, even to the swords for my dragoons, caps, leather jackets, boots, and spurs."

A man who lived at the time of the Revolution said that the people gradually learned how to make things for both necessary



SIXTEEN LINKS FROM THE WEST POINT CHAIN
The chain was stretched across the Hudson River to bar British ships.

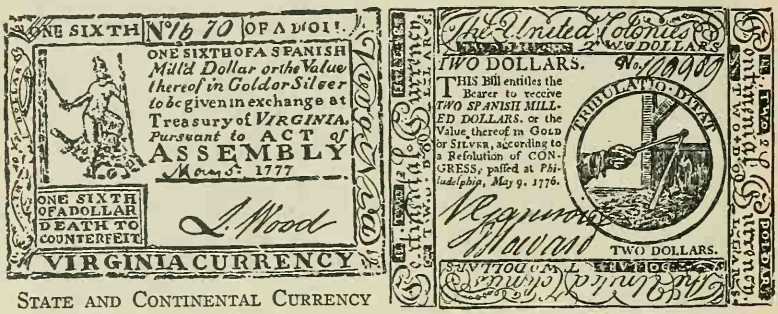
use and comfort. He called this added self-dependence "one of the inestimable fruits of the Revolution." Independence helped make the United States more of a manufacturing nation.

Defects of the Confederation of States.—The people showed ingenuity in improving their government as well as in making material things. No race after securing its freedom ever started with a perfect government. The Americans soon learned the defects of their Confederation (p. 188) and were ready to suggest improvements.

The Confederation was in practical existence from the time when the colonies declared their independence until the new government began under the present Constitution (1789). The principal defect of the Confederation was due to the fact that its Congress had little authority to make laws, and no power to enforce obedience to them or to the Articles of Confederation. There was no President, no Senate, no Supreme Court. One of the articles begins: "Each state retains its sovereignty, freedom, and independence." The Articles of Confederation were not a constitution which was the supreme law of the land and

which controlled every state, no matter whether it liked the law or not.

The states were the supreme bodies. They could and did issue paper money. They regulated trade with foreign countries.



STATE AND CONTINENTAL CURRENCY

Neither kind of paper money was redeemable on demand. Each slowly declined to nothing in actual value.

New York taxed foreign goods for its own treasury and then sold them to New Jersey with the tax added. Duties were levied on articles taken from one state to another, just as if each were an independent foreign power. New York taxed common garden products and butter coming from New Jersey. A lighthouse on the New Jersey shore was necessary for vessels using New York harbor. New Jersey retaliated by putting a tax of $1800 a year on this lighthouse.

When most of the New England states would not allow British ships to come to their harbors, Connecticut reaped a profit by opening hers. Such a condition of affairs caused bad feeling among the states and might finally have led them into war.

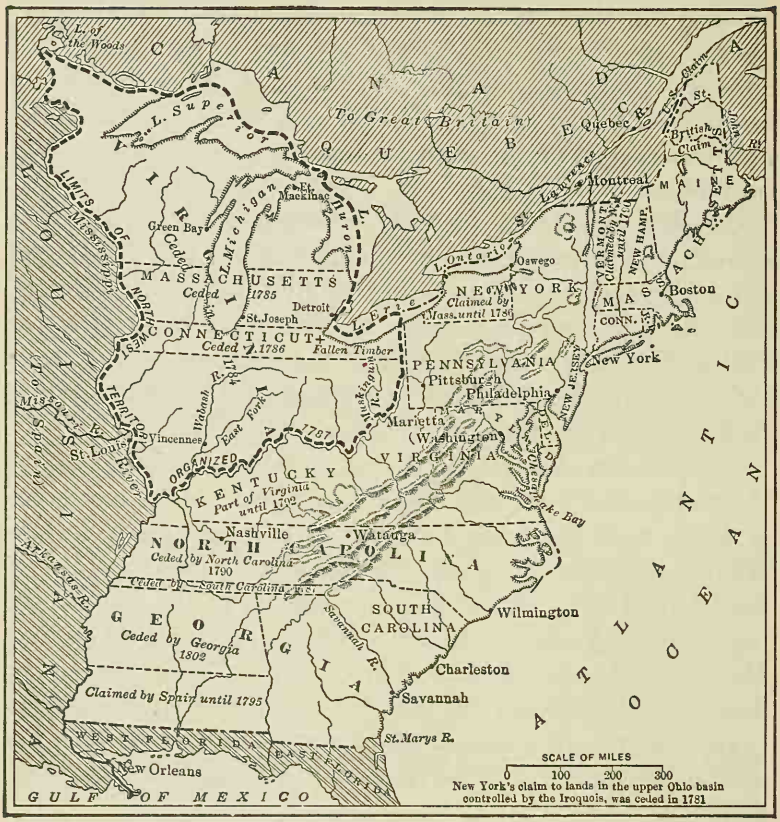
It proved impossible to change the Articles of Confederation, because no change could be made without the consent of every state, and at least one state was sure to object. For instance Congress asked for power to lay an import tax of five per cent to meet the cost of government. Twelve states agreed, but New York refused. Congress tried to get money for this purpose from the states, but they would not furnish a sufficient amount.

Holland lent the Congress more than $2,000,000 for running expenses. Few European countries expected to see the republic survive. Congress sent John Adams as its representative to Great Britain, and he was told that each of the thirteen states ought to send its own minister because the central Congress had no power.

Congress unable to suppress rebellion.—Congress had no power to suppress disorder or rebellion. When the soldiers did not receive their pay at the end of the Revolution, some of them mutinied and then went to the meeting place of Congress at Philadelphia, where they threatened the members with personal violence. Congress could not even protect itself and had to flee to Princeton, New Jersey, to continue its meeting.

Paper money, fewer exports, and a decline in business after the profiteering of the war caused hard times. Many mortgages of farms were foreclosed and men in debt were sent to jail. What is known as the Shays Rebellion (1786–1787) was due to these hard times. Daniel Shays, a captain in the Revolution, put himself at the head of nearly two thousand farmers in western Massachusetts and tried to stop the courts from prosecuting debtors and sentencing them to jail. Congress had no soldiers to suppress this rebellion. Massachusetts was stronger than the central government, and she broke up the rebellion with her own militia.

The Ordinance of 1787.—Maryland had delayed signing the Articles of Confederation because Virginia and other states were claiming the Northwest Territory, which included the land in the present states of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, and Wisconsin. Virginia had two reasons for her claim. (1) Her colonial charter had given her the land "west and northwest" (p. 50), and (2) she had sent George Rogers Clark to take the Northwest from Great Britain. Virginia, however, at last gave up her claim to this land (1784), as did also New York, Massachusetts, and Connecticut. Congress passed the Ordinance of 1787 for the government and future division of this territory



THE UNITED STATES AFTER THE REVOLUTION, SHOWING STATE CLAIMS TO WESTERN LANDS, ALSO THE NORTHWEST TERRITORY (1787)

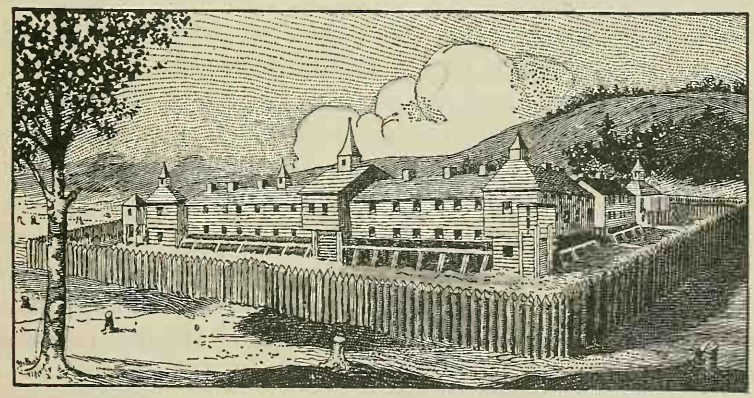
Each state formed out of it was to be "on an equal footing with the thirteen original states." This Ordinance is important because it (1) stated the way in which this territory should be organized into states and (2) marked out a path which has been followed in governing all the rest of the continental territory of the United States. The Ordinance provided for a free church, free schools, free men, and free government. Its most famous clauses are:

" Religion, morality, and knowledge being necessary to good government and the happiness of mankind, schools and the means of education shall forever be encouraged."

" There shall be neither slavery nor involuntary servitude in the said territory, otherwise than in the punishment of crimes, whereof the party shall have been duly convicted."

First New England settlement in the West.—Many were unwilling to settle with their families in the Northwest Territory until an orderly government had been provided. After the Ordinance of 1787 was passed, a New England land company, called the Ohio Company, bought of Congress one million acres on the Ohio and Muskingum rivers. The price agreed on was nominally two thirds of a dollar per acre, but the real amount paid was about nine cents an acre, since part of the sum was paid in national securities worth about twelve cents on the dollar.

This company laid out the site of the town of Marietta (1788). This was the first New England settlement in the West. Mindful of the fact that New England had been settled by colonists brought over in the *Mayflower*, these New England colonizers of the West gave the name of *Mayflower* to the boat which they



CAMPUS MARTIUS—THE FORT BUILT AT MARIETTA IN 1788–1789
Drawn from a woodcut printed in 1842.

built to carry them down the Ohio to the site of Marietta. They had marched through Pennsylvania to the upper Ohio River, which was becoming a great water pathway for pioneers to the West.

The Constitutional Convention.—The Congress of the Confederation issued a call (1787) for a convention to meet at Philadelphia to revise the Articles of Confederation. All the states except Rhode Island sent delegates to this body, which is known as the "Constitutional Convention." It held its meetings in Philadelphia from May to September, 1787. George Washington was the president of the convention and Benjamin Franklin was one of its important members. This convention framed our present national Constitution, which is "the supreme law of the land."

Two young men in the convention.—Two young men in their early thirties were specially active in making the Constitution and securing its adoption. They were Alexander Hamilton (1757–1804) of New York, and James Madison (1751–1836) of Virginia.

Hamilton was born in the British West Indies, where his mother died early. Before he was twelve years old, relatives put him in a business office where he had to keep accounts and write letters. He read there Plutarch's *Lives* and much poetry. The boy also wrote original prose and poetry. He showed so much ability that he was sent to the United States in his fifteenth year, and he became a student in King's College (now Columbia), in the city of New York. At the age of seventeen he wrote prose more forcible than that of many of the statesmen.

Hamilton threw himself heart and soul into the cause of independence (picture, p. 211). He used his tongue and pen more effectively than any other man to secure the adoption of the Constitution after it had been framed. He ranks among America's most brilliant statesmen.

Madison was born on a Virginia plantation, which his biographer has called "a mimic commonwealth with its foreign and

domestic relations." The foreign relations were due to the exporting of shipments of hogsheads of tobacco once a year to England and receiving goods in exchange. The mimic commonwealth over which the elder Madison ruled was the cottages of negro slaves. The boy was sent to Princeton College, New Jersey, where he graduated four years before the adoption of the Declaration of Independence.

He was very much interested in religious as well as in civil liberty. In one of his indignant letters written in Virginia the year before the outbreak of the Revolution, he said: "There are at this time in the adjacent country not less than five or six well-meaning men in close jail for publishing their religious sentiments, which in the main are very orthodox." We thus learn that New England was not the only place where there was religious intolerance.

When the convention was called, Madison used all his energies to help make the Constitution. The deliberations in framing it were held in secret, but he took copious notes which were afterwards published. He assisted Hamilton in writing the *Federalist*, a remarkable series of articles to explain the Constitution and persuade the states to accept it.

Two opposite views.—Some of the delegates to the Constitutional Convention thought the central government ought to have broad powers over the states. Their motto was: "The nation first." Others wanted to keep the chief authority in the states. Their cry was: "The states first."

The delegates had been called together to revise the Articles of Confederation, but the majority thought it better to discard them and make a new constitution. In framing the various articles of the Constitution there were several points of serious disagreement among the delegates.

Compromises.—One great trouble was that the states thought that they must preserve almost as much independence as if they were different nations. The small states demanded as much representation in Congress as the large ones. The large states

objected because they would have to pay most of the taxes and furnish most men in case of war.

When the convention threatened to break up, Franklin reminded it that a good carpenter who fitted planks together for the top of a table sometimes had to plane off the edges of both to make a good joint. The large states agreed to yield on the question of the Senate and to give the same number of senators to each state, so that Delaware, for example, should have as much power in the Senate as Pennsylvania. The small states agreed that members of the House of Representatives should be chosen proportionally to the population of the states. This was called the "great compromise" of the Constitution.

Two other compromises hinged on the question of slavery. In estimating the population for levying national taxes, the northern states wished to count the negroes. The South replied that negroes should not be counted any more than horses at the North. As a compromise, both sections agreed to count five negroes the same as three white persons. This was to be the basis for determining the number of members in the House of Representatives as well as for direct taxation.

The North wished the central government to have the power of regulating all foreign trade, including that in slaves. Some southern states forced the compromise that Congress should be allowed to regulate foreign trade on condition that it should not prohibit the importation of slaves for the next twenty years.

Minor compromises may be found in nearly every section of the Constitution. We do not know how many delegates became so angry that they threatened to leave the convention at one time or another during its four months' session. The respect in which Washington was held helped to keep them together. Franklin's humor and practical common sense must also have been effective. One day he told the delegates about a French lady who said: "I don't know how it happens, sister, but I meet with nobody but myself that is always in the right."

It is well for stubborn people to remember that the escape

STATUE OF FRANKLIN

Placed in the Library Park of Waterbury, Connecticut, in 1921; sculpture by Bartlett.

from the unbearable conditions of the Confederation was due to willingness to compromise. The Constitution did not suit Hamilton because he wanted a far stronger central government, but he signed the document because it was the best that could be had. The result of the work of the convention was a good Constitution, although it did not exactly suit a single person who signed it.

The Constitution.—The old Articles of Confederation had only one department of government. The new Constitution provided for three separate branches: (1) a Senate and House of Representatives, the two together being the Congress or the lawmaking body; (2) the Executive or President of the United States, with power to enforce the laws; and (3) the Courts of the United States, with the Supreme Court at the head, to interpret the laws and apply them in particular cases.

Each of these branches or departments was intended to be a check on the others to keep them from being tyrannical. The President may veto any law passed by the Senate and House of Representatives, but they may pass it over his veto by a two-thirds vote in each body. If Congress passes a law which the President approves, the Supreme Court may nullify it if that court decides it is unconstitutional.

The most original work of the Constitutional Convention was the creation of the national Supreme Court. Great Britain has no court with such powers. Its Parliament may enact any law it likes and no British court will declare it void. In other words, an act of the Parliament is all that is necessary to change the British constitution.

The most important single fact about the Constitution of the United States is that it became "the supreme law of the land." The national government need not to-day "request" or "advise," as the Confederation was compelled to do. Our government may issue commands as the Constitution directs, and can enforce them by the army and navy of the United States. If a state should pass a law making paper money a legal tender for debt, such a law would be of no avail, for the Constitution says that no state can order anything but silver and gold to be used for such a purpose. All state laws in conflict with the Constitution of the United States are void.

The Constitution has served so well because its framers put in it little that had not been actually tried and proved successful in one or another of the colonies, states, or the Confederation.

The Constitution is short, containing fewer than 5000 words. We should read it (see Appendix) to learn the special powers of each of the three departments of our national government. All these are interesting because it is by reason of these that we have a great and successful Union.

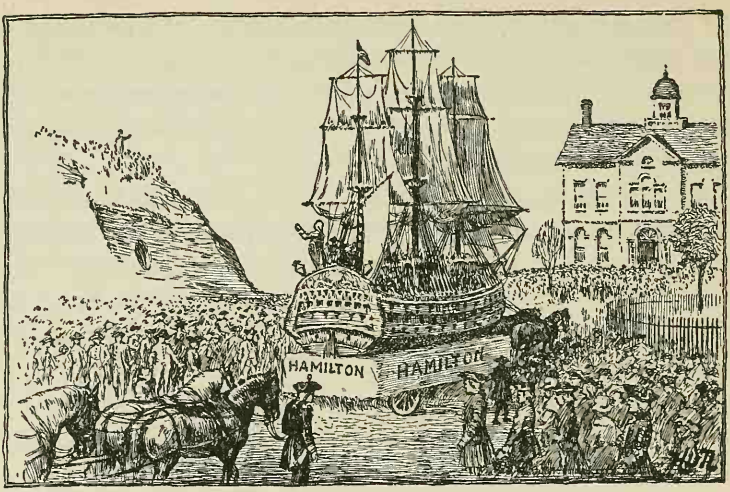
The first ten amendments were passed almost as soon as the government was organized. Their chief purpose was to add a "bill of rights" to the Constitution, that is, to guarantee every one the right to his own religion, to freedom of speech and of the press, to petition the government, to trial by jury, and to his life, liberty, and property.

Ratification.—After the delegates had agreed on the form of the Constitution, it had to be submitted to the states. The Constitution provided that the new Union should be formed as soon as nine states ratified it. If the other four chose, they could stay outside its protection.

There was a hard fight made by opponents of the Constitution to prevent its acceptance. It begins with the words "We the people." Patrick Henry advised Virginia not to accept it. "What right had they," he asked, "to say 'We the people' instead of 'We the states'?" Almost every section of the Constitution was challenged by some one opposed to it.

Pennsylvania was the first of the large states to vote for the Constitution. After a hard struggle Massachusetts and Virginia ratified it by small majorities. The hardest fight was in New York, where Hamilton found nearly two thirds of the state delegates opposed to the Constitution. His genius enabled him to win its acceptance by a majority of three.

By July, 1788, eleven states had ratified the Constitution. The old Congress of the Confederation issued a call to these eleven members of the new Union to take the necessary steps to set in motion the new government under the Constitution. North Carolina and Rhode Island were the only two states that did not accept the Constitution until after George Washington was elected President of the United States.



PARADE IN NEW YORK TO CELEBRATE THE ADOPTION OF THE CONSTITUTION
From a contemporary print.

The great work of the people.—In thirteen years the people had (1) adopted the Declaration of Independence, (2) fought the Revolution and gained their independence, (3) made constitutions for self-governing states, (4) formed a Confederation of states that conducted the war successfully and proved a school of experience for teaching a better form of union. Then came (5) the framing and adoption of the Constitution for the self-governing Union under which we live to-day. This is an unsurpassed thirteen years' record for a people. To make this record, they really had had training in self-government for a long time, having been steadily developing it for nearly two hundred years in colonial America. We ought to be the last people to expect those who have had no such long attendance in the school of self-government to learn the art at once.

Summary of Points of Emphasis for Review.—(1) Women's part in the Revolution, (2) work of men not serving in the army, (3) development of ingenuity, (4) defects of the Confederation, (5) danger of war between the states, (6) thirteen ministers suggested by Great Britain, (7) the Shays rebellion, (8) Ordinance of 1787, (9) first New England settlement in the

West, (10) Constitutional Convention, (11) Alexander Hamilton and James Madison, (12) the states versus the nation, (13) compromises in the Constitution, (14) chief provisions of the Constitution, (15) ratification, (16) record of the people for thirteen years after the Declaration of Independence.

Activities.—Talk for three minutes on what the people who stayed at home had to do for the army.

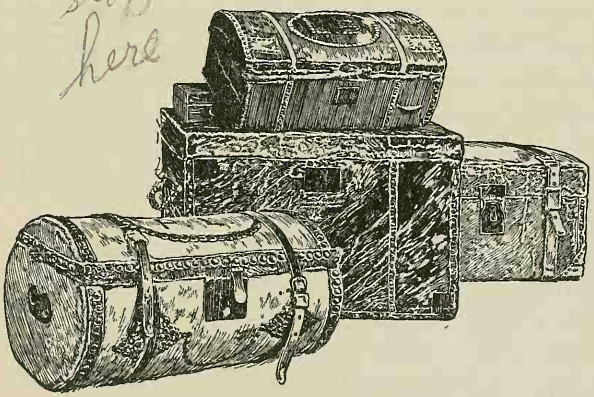
Explain to the class why the United States could not have continued to be governed by the Articles of Confederation.

Write one hundred words on the most important facts about the Constitution.

In three minutes tell the class what the people accomplished in the thirteen years from 1776 to 1789.

References for Teachers.—Fish, *Development of American Nationality*, 1–43; Greene, *Foundations of Am. Nationality*, XXIV.–XXVIII.; Clark, *History of Manufactures in U. S.*, 215–232; Tryon, *Household Manufactures in U. S.*, 112–122; Fiske, *Critical Period of American History*, III., IV., V.; McLaughlin, *The Confederation and the Constitution;* Channing, *Hist. of the U. S.*, III.; Farrand, *Fathers of the Constitution* (Chron. of Am.); Elliot, *Biographical Story of Constitution*, 3–45; Hart, *Am. Hist. Told by Contemp.*, II., 463–465, 467–469, 591–593, III., 120–249.

For Pupils.—Hart, *Camps and Firesides of the Revolution*, 216–220; Earle, *Colonial Dames and Goodwives*, 240–257; Elson, *Side Lights on Am. Hist.*, 24–53; Sparks, *Men Who Made the Nation*, 119–180.



Old-fashioned Trunks

CHAPTER XV

BEGINNING OF GOVERNMENT UNDER THE CONSTITUTION

Organization.—The first of the three branches of the new government to be organized was the lawmaking body, called Congress. This body is composed of the Senate and the House of Representatives. The Constitution gave each state two senators but made the number of its representatives proportional to its population; so Delaware had two senators and one representative, while Virginia, then the largest state, had two senators and ten representatives.

It was necessary for Congress to organize first, because the President and Vice President could not be elected until Congress met and counted the electoral vote. The old Congress of the Confederation called the new Congress under the Constitution to meet in New York, then the capital of the nation, on March 4, 1789. March 4 has continued to be the date when new sessions of Congress begin and Presidents are inaugurated. March was not a good month for traveling by sea or land. Stagecoaches often sank in mud up to the hubs, and a man on horseback sometimes had to dismount so that the poor animal could get out of the mire. Congress took its time about assembling and did not have a quorum in New York until April.

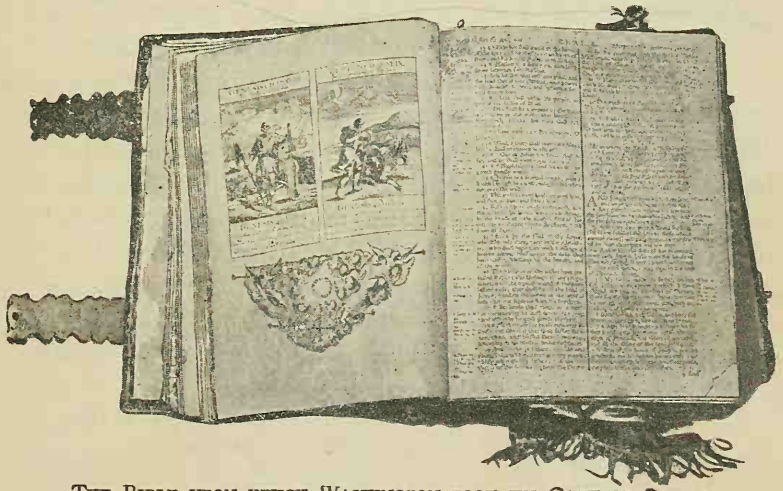
When the electoral vote was counted, Washington's name was found on every ballot, and he was elected President. John Adams of Massachusetts had the next highest number of votes and became Vice President. Four years later, near the end of Washington's first term, all the electors again voted for him. No other President has been elected by a unanimous vote.

The last of the three branches of the national government to be organized was the judiciary. The Constitution directs that

the President shall appoint the judges of the courts of the United States. Washington selected John Jay, of New York, as the first chief justice of the Supreme Court of the nation. He had been one of the three commissioners who made the treaty of peace between the United States and Great Britain.

Washington's triumphal journey and inauguration.—Congress sent a special messenger to Mount Vernon, Virginia, to notify Washington of his election as President. Washington, then fifty-seven years old, wanted to stay at home and manage his plantation in quiet; but when Hamilton and Madison told him that he was the only man who could make the people accept the new government, he followed the call of duty in this case as in others. Washington must have felt almost repaid for his sacrifice before he reached New York. He made the journey on horseback, and found the people everywhere waiting to greet him. Bells were rung and cannon fired to welcome him. Processions of citizens and soldiers marched in his honor.

The inauguration of George Washington, the first President of the United States, took place in New York on the last day of



THE BIBLE UPON WHICH WASHINGTON TOOK HIS OATH OF OFFICE

It is opened at the page he chose. This Bible has been carefully preserved in New York. In 1921 it was taken to Washington and used in President Harding's inauguration.

April, 1789. While in office he kept his plantation habit of going to bed at nine and rising at four. So many people called to see him that early rising was necessary to give him time for reading applications for positions and general correspondence that would to-day be attended to by the President's secretary.

The cabinet.—The Constitution gives in about 400 words an outline of what the President may do. Washington gave life to that mere skeleton; he may almost be said to have created the presidency. Congress established at its first session a Department of State, a Department of the Treasury, and a War Department. Washington might have filled these departments with ordinary clerks, and taken all the credit to himself for managing the nation's affairs, for the Constitution says nothing about the consulting body, known as the President's cabinet, which soon became part of the government. This may be rightly called Washington's creation, since he selected for his cabinet some of the greatest men in the country, men whom he consulted as his equals, thus raising the cabinet to its present position of honor and influence. Alexander Hamilton, Washington's Secretary of the Treasury, and Thomas Jefferson, his Secretary of State, have made a lasting place for themselves in American history.

The President's cabinet has been enlarged since Washington's time, as the business of the government has grown. The post office was in operation then, but it was not yet thought important enough to be represented in the cabinet. Washington ranked the Attorney-General as a member of his cabinet, but the Department of Justice, of which the Attorney-General is the head, was not created for three quarters of a century.

The cabinet now includes the following heads of departments (the date shows the time of the creation of each department):

Secretary of State, 1789.
Secretary of the Treasury, 1789.
Secretary of War, 1789.
Secretary of the Navy, 1798.
Postmaster-General, 1829.
Secretary of the Interior, 1849.
Attorney-General, 1870.
Secretary of Agriculture, 1889.
Secretary of Commerce, 1903.
Secretary of Labor, 1913.

Hamilton begins the management of the nation's finances.—The most original and masterly work of Washington's administration was done in managing the finances. A large amount of money was necessary to run the three branches of government ordered by the Constitution. The new government was not having a fair start, because it had to take on its shoulders the debts of the Confederation. In Alexander Hamilton, the Secretary of the Treasury, Washington chose a genius to manage the finances of the nation. It has been the fashion among some to say that the acts of men and nations are guided by "economic motives," that is, by the desire for monetary gain. If such motives had guided Washington, Hamilton, and many other Americans, this government would not now exist. Hamilton's friends urged him in vain not to give up his paying law practice to accept an office that would bring abuse and persecution.

Hamilton knew that Americans did not like taxation, and he was sure that the new government would fail unless he could raise large sums of money without causing widespread public discontent. No one had yet succeeded in avoiding trouble over taxes. In order to raise money for the everyday expenses of government, he advised duties on imported articles and persuaded Congress to adopt this plan. He was acute enough to see that such duties would be more popular than before, because an increasing number wished to engage in manufacturing, and these duties would help protect them from foreign competition. Thus it was under his guidance that the Union adopted its first protective tariff.

Hamilton later secured from Congress a charter for the Bank of the United States, because he wanted (1) a safe place in which to deposit money received from duties and other sources, and (2) an agency to issue bank notes acceptable as currency in all the states, in place of state bills of uncertain value.

Payment of debts.—Washington and Hamilton were determined that the new Union should preserve its honor by paying the inherited debts. There was no dispute about paying the

$12,000,000 owed France and Holland. There was, however, strong opposition (1) to the full payment of debts due citizens for money furnished the Confederation, and (2) to the assumption of the debts incurred by individual states, such as Massachusetts and South Carolina, in fighting the British within their borders.

Hamilton knew that import duties would not pay these debts and that direct taxation sufficient to pay them at once would ruin the people and cause them to put an end to the government. His genius was shown in his plan for issuing securities to cover both foreign and domestic debts of $75,000,000 and for disposing of these in a way to strengthen the Union. Many said that so large a debt would wreck the nation, and they called Hamilton a "skite," or irresponsible person. He was the only one who saw clearly that the large number of creditors would be glad to accept these securities for the sums owed, and that a debt of that size would be a source of positive strength to the nation. Others did not then have the imagination to realize that every holder of these securities would become strongly interested in the welfare of the Union. If the new government was a success, it could pay both interest and principal. Hamilton really enlisted an army of creditors willing to fight for the Union.

MONUMENT ON HAMILTON'S GRAVE
In Trinity Churchyard, on Broadway, City of New York.

Hamilton found that the measure to have the nation pay the state debts was not likely to pass because of southern opposition. He knew that the Southerners wished to have the national capital nearer their section. Hamilton, the New Yorker, then saw Jefferson, the Virginian, and promised to secure enough northern votes to remove the capital from New York to Philadelphia for ten years (1790–1800) and then to transfer it to the Potomac on a site (afterward called the District of Columbia) to be selected by President Washington. In return, Jefferson secured the southern votes necessary to have the nation assume the state debts; and Congress passed both measures.

Unpreparedness; trouble with Indians.—Washington's influence was not sufficient to get Congress to provide an army to protect the frontier settlers from the Indians, or a navy to save our sailors from capture and enslavement by Algerian pirates. Congress allowed the President to enlist two thousand men for not more than six months. Such troops, if used at all, would be called on before they had learned how to fight. When the Indians slaughtered settlers in Ohio and in other parts of the Northwest Territory, Washington sent General St. Clair against them, with a force mostly untrained. The Indians easily cut this army to pieces on the east fork of the Wabash River (1791). Congress later authorized more soldiers, with the condition that they should be discharged as soon as there was peace with the Indians. General Wayne took this army and trained it well before he moved against the Indians. He then inflicted a crushing defeat on them at Fallen Timber (1794), not far from the site of Tole'do. The northwestern Indians then ceded a large tract of territory to the United States.

The Whisky Rebellion.—Hamilton believed that an internal revenue tax should be laid, to show the people that the central government had the power of taxation. If trouble should result, he wanted it to come while Washington was President. He therefore proposed to collect an excise tax on distilled spirits, and Congress passed the bill.

Farmers in western Pennsylvania could not send their corn to market in the East, because there were then neither canals nor railroads. By converting the corn into whisky, they reduced the bulk so that it could be marketed. When officers of the United States came to collect the tax under the new law, they were tarred and feathered and the government was defied (1794).

Washington knew that the government could not hope to succeed unless it could compel obedience to its laws. He asked four states for fifteen thousand soldiers to put down the rebellion. More than that number responded, and the rebellion ceased. The loyal response of the states and the suppression of the rebellion furnished a precedent of the utmost value to the future government of the United States. Presidents in after times have followed Washington's example in using soldiers to secure obedience to national laws.

The French Revolution.—The Whisky Rebellion was serious because it furnished a test of the obedience of the people to the laws of the nation. This lawlessness was soon subdued, but foreign troubles arose and threatened the peace of the country during Washington's second administration and the administrations of the next three Presidents. We must know something of the French Revolution in order to understand the reason for the new war between Great Britain and France.

The success of the American Revolution helped to make the French people wish to be free. The American colonists had never known such tyranny as was inflicted on the common people of France. The French king was almost an absolute monarch; the people had no vote or voice in the government. The French nobles thought work was degrading, and so they made the peasants support them in luxury. The American colonists had complained of a small tax on tea. The French king and nobles took from the peasants in taxes and rents more than half of the products of their labor. The English poet Wordsworth found the French children "hunger-bitten." Thomas Carlyle, a Scotch prose writer, gives a picture of a French mother of seven children,

"looking sixty years of age, though she is not yet twenty-eight," crushed under the heavy burden of rents and taxes.

The French Revolution, which began in 1789, was a revolt against special privileges for the few and unfair treatment of the many. Americans naturally sympathized with the French in their struggles to escape from their yoke. The French Revolution started with high aims. Its watchword was "Liberty, Equality, Fraternity." The French cut off the head of their king and proclaimed a republic. One of their orators said: "All governments are our enemies; all people are our allies." The French actually set out to free Europe from kings. They even said they would help the subjects of the king of Great Britain to throw off their yoke. The result was war with Great Britain (1793). The French declared war because they made the mistake of thinking that the common people of Great Britain would rise in revolution and help to overthrow their own government.

France asks aid.—The United States had promised France, at the time of the French alliance (p. 195), to help her if she was attacked. Many said that such aid should be given only in case of a defensive war, and that France had begun the war. Large numbers, however, thought that we ought to help France since she had aided us.

Washington took a common-sense view of the situation. He knew that the United States was not prepared for war and that it had all that it could do to run its new government successfully. He issued his famous Proclamation of Neutrality (1793) and declared that the United States would be friendly but impartial toward the warring powers.

The new French government sent Edmond Genêt (zhē-nĕ′) as minister to the United States. He was received with as much enthusiasm as Franklin had been in France. Genêt, however, tried to force our government to be the partner of France in the war, and Washington had him recalled.

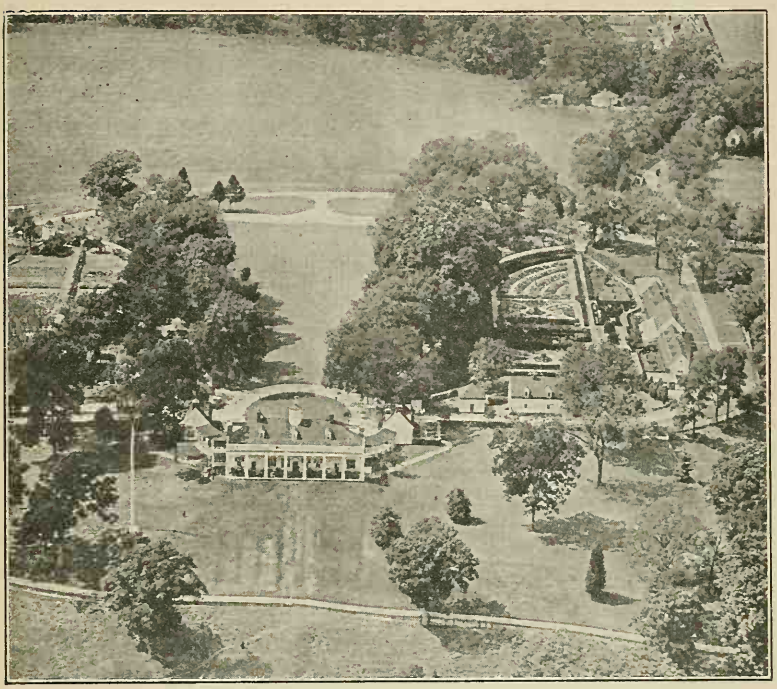
The war brings trouble.—When foreign nations engage in war, the commerce of neutral nations suffers. It is easy for a neutral

nation to be drawn into the war in order to protect its commerce. Great Britain seized American vessels trading with the French islands in the West Indies. Great Britain and France both ordered the capture of neutral vessels that carried food to the enemy. The United States denied that food was "contraband," that is, an article of commerce liable to seizure under the rules of war.

Many were eager to fight Great Britain, and others wanted to help France. The country would have welcomed a word from Washington in favor of war, but he was determined to prevent it. He hurriedly sent Chief Justice John Jay to England to arrange for a treaty. The clause in it which removed one great danger of war was the agreement of Great Britain to surrender the posts which she still held on our northern frontier (map facing p. 210) on condition that we complied with the terms of the peace treaty of 1783 and paid our debts to British merchants. The part of the treaty regulating our commerce with the West Indies was so unfavorable that the Senate would not ratify that part of it, but Great Britain did not object to its omission. The treaty as ratified was unpopular, but it served its purpose of keeping us out of war with Great Britain. Those who favored France burned Jay in effigy. Soon after this he resigned his position as chief justice and became governor of New York.

Spain and the navigation of the Mississippi.—Washington had to face another danger of war. The settlers in the Ohio valley could not send their grain and meat across the Appalachians because there were no railroads. The produce of that region could find no market unless it could be sent by water to New Orleans and shipped from there. Spain owned the territory on both sides of the lower Mississippi and interfered with American shipments. She wanted the settlers of the interior to realize that they would profit by coming under Spanish rule because they could then market their produce.

The western settlers threatened either to form a separate government and attack Spain, or to unite with her. Washington



AIRPLANE VIEW OF MOUNT VERNON

The mansion, seen in the foreground, is kept in the condition in which Washington left it, and is visited by thousands from all parts of the country. Beyond it, at the right, are gardens and the houses of caretakers. The estate is owned and managed by the Ladies' Mount Vernon Association.

had noted that members of Congress paid "little attention to the western country because they were of the opinion it would soon shake off its dependence on the East, and in the meantime would be burdensome to it." He pushed matters with Spain and secured a treaty (1795) allowing our citizens to deposit their goods at New Orleans "without paying any other duty than a fair price for the hire of the stores."

New states.—When Washington was inaugurated, he was President of but eleven states. When he made his first tour in New England, he avoided Rhode Island as foreign territory. At the close of his second administration, there were sixteen states in the Union. In addition to North Carolina and Rhode

Island, which soon joined, three new states were admitted: Vermont (1791), Kentucky (1792), and Tennessee (1796).

Washington's farewell and death.—Washington served for two terms (1789-1797). He would not allow his name to be proposed for a third term. Near the end of his second term he issued a *Farewell Address*, which is full of wisdom and is often quoted to-day. Two years later he died at his home, Mount Vernon, near the city of Washington, which was then building on the site he had selected (p. 233). These words from a funeral oration before Congress are known to the majority of Americans: "First in war, first in peace, and first in the hearts of his countrymen."

The rise of parties.—There were no regular political parties in Washington's first administration, but in his second term two parties developed, which came to be known as Federalist and Republican. The Republican party of that time has no relation to the present party of the same name, which was not formed until 1854.

John Adams (pp. 155, 188, 228), who had been Vice President during both of Washington's administrations, was elected President to succeed Washington, and served for one term (1797-1801). He became the leader of the Federalist party. Thomas Jefferson, the Republican leader, was at the same time elected Vice President.

The Federalists believed in using the implied powers of the Constitution, but the Republicans insisted on its strict interpretation. The Federalists explained an "implied" power in this way. If somebody should be directed to cut down a tree, such an order would *imply* that he should procure an ax, although "ax" was not mentioned in the directions. When Hamilton, a leading Federalist, wanted Congress to give a charter to the Bank of the United States (p. 231), Jefferson, the Republican leader, opposed the plan because the Constitution said nothing about a bank. The Federalists replied that the Constitution gave the power to collect duties and taxes, and such power implied the need of a

place to keep the money which the government collected. Washington agreed with Hamilton, and Congress chartered the bank. The future history of the country showed that its growth required frequent use of the implied powers of the Constitution.

Another reason for the rise of parties was the extension of democracy, the demand that the common man should be given more of a share in his own government. The desire for more democracy was shown in the influence which the French Revolution had over men. John Adams expressed the views of the Federalists when he said that the government should be in the hands of the "well-born, the educated, and the able." The greater number of the common people could not then vote because they did not have sufficient property to pay the required taxes. Americans then held the English idea that a voter should have property. The Federalists feared that if all the people had a vote, the ignorant and the unfit would rule.

The Republicans led the new movement for giving the common man a voice in the government. They were more in sympathy with France and the French Revolution, while the Federalists showed a greater liking for Great Britain.

Troubles of the administration of John Adams.—The greatest trouble in Adams's administration was caused by the continuance of the war between France and Great Britain. Other troubles came from party strife. The fact that the President and Vice President belonged to different parties made this strife more bitter. Adams was a statesman but no politician. Jefferson was both statesman and politician, and he used his great ability to oppose Adams and advance the interests of the Republican party.

The X, Y, Z affair.—The French government was very angry because the Jay treaty (p. 236) favored Great Britain and deprived France of American help, and the American minister to France was ordered to leave the country. Many Federalists wished to fight France. Adams wanted peace, and he sent three commissioners to France to work for friendly relations. Agents

of the French minister, known in the dispatches as "Mr. X, Mr. Y, and Mr. Z," demanded a bribe of a quarter of a million dollars and a loan to France as the price of a hearing and friendly relations. "Not a sixpence," said the commissioners.

On the brink of war.—Americans felt that this nation had been insulted. Congress at once provided for a navy, authorized the arming of merchant vessels, and gave our warships permission to seize any French vessels that molested our commerce. All treaties with France were suspended. There was no declaration of war, but the two countries actually fought on the ocean without any such declaration. American vessels captured a French man-of-war and eighty-four other French ships.

The good sense of Adams and the French stopped further hostilities. France let it be known that she would receive a minister, and Adams sent representatives to France, where they were received with honor. History honors the memory of Adams because he prevented a war which would have been popular. He said later that he wanted only this inscription on his gravestone: "Here lies John Adams, who took upon himself the responsibility of preventing a war with France in the year 1800."

Alien and Sedition Acts.—During the last part of the French Revolution the United States had much the same kind of trouble with foreign agitators as during the World War of the twentieth century. Radical people who wished to abolish all government flocked to the United States. Many of them were Frenchmen, who, although they had come to a free country, denounced the President and Congressmen elected by the American people as bitterly as they had denounced French despots.

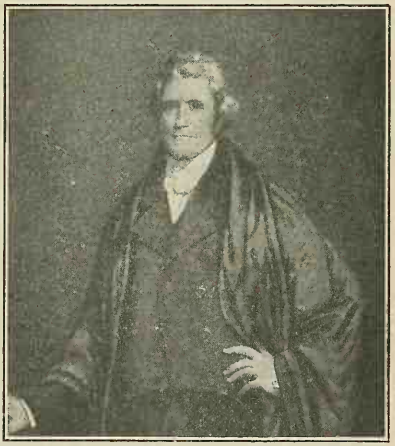
Congress passed the Alien and Sedition Acts to deal with this situation. These laws increased the time of residence before a foreigner could become a citizen and, for two years, gave the President the right to deport dangerous aliens and the citizens of enemy countries. The Sedition Act imposed a penalty of fine and imprisonment on those who published articles or made speeches attacking officials of the government. This law was

made to check those who wished to overthrow the existing government, but it caused a great outcry because it was used unwisely, sometimes against Republican editors who merely criticized Federalist officeholders. A man who said that President Adams ought to be spanked instead of having cannon fired to salute him was fined $100.

It was for some time said that these laws defeated Adams for reëlection. Recent studies have shown that they probably had little effect on the election.

Kentucky and Virginia Resolutions.—Jefferson attacked the Alien and Sedition Acts. He wrote what has been called the "Kentucky Resolutions" as a Republican platform, such as political parties now use to state their views. The legislature of Kentucky passed these resolutions. Madison prepared a similar set of resolutions which were adopted by Virginia.

These resolutions are important because they declared that a state, and not the Supreme Court, was the judge of the constitutionality of acts of the national Congress, such as the Alien and Sedition Acts; and that a state might nullify, or declare void, an act which it thought unconstitutional. Sixty years later this teaching helped bring on the Civil War.



JOHN MARSHALL
From the painting by Harding in 1830.

A great chief justice.—One of the most important acts of John Adams helped change the later history of the United States. This was his appointment of John Marshall (1755–1835) of Virginia, his Secretary of State, to be chief justice of the United States Supreme Court. Marshall was noted for being good-natured and fair-minded.

He was very plain in dress and manner. Even when he was chief justice, he never tried to make others think that he was important. He used to carry his turkey home from market, and once he also took one for a young upstart who loudly complained that he could find no one to carry it for him.

Marshall's interpretation of the Constitution entitles him to high rank among the makers of the nation. He was chief justice for thirty-four years, and wrote many decisions that have since served as precedents. He believed in the implied powers (p. 238) of the Constitution. Under his influence the Supreme Court decided that Congress could pass any laws needed to make the Constitution effective, because the Constitution declares that Congress shall have power "to make all necessary and proper laws" to carry its provisions into effect. The acts of Congress have ever since followed this decision; for example, during the World War of recent times. After our government had used its constitutional right to declare war, it forced men into the army and allowed the Secretary of War to seize wool for clothing, and other supplies for the soldiers. The power to declare war would have been useless without the right to make that power effective. Marshall also interpreted the Constitution to mean that the Supreme Court has the power to declare void any laws passed by Congress or a state if they are in conflict with the Constitution.

Our history might have been different if a judge who held a different view of the Constitution had been the first to make precedents for future decisions.

Summary of Points of Emphasis for Review.—(1) Organization of the government, (2) Washington's triumphal journey and inauguration, (3) creation of the cabinet, (4) Hamilton's management of the finances: protective tariff, various debts of the United States, how the law for the assumption of state debts was passed, how an army of creditors was raised willing to fight for the new Union, (5) trouble with Indians, (6) Whisky Rebellion, (7) French Revolution, (8) war between Great Britain and France, (9) Proclamation of Neutrality, (10) interference with neutral commerce, (11) what Jay's treaty accomplished, (12) Spain and the Mississippi,

(13) new states, (14) Washington's *Farewell Address* and death, (15) rise of parties, Federalists and Republicans, (16) election of Adams and Jefferson, (17) X, Y, Z affair, (18) conflict with France on ocean, (19) Adams avoids war, (20) Alien and Sedition Acts, (21) Kentucky and Virginia Resolutions, (22) why Chief Justice Marshall was one of the makers of the nation.

Activities.—A jury of historians has called 1789 the fourth most important date in the history of our country, the three more important being (1) 1776, (2) 1492, (3) 1607. Tell why 1789 was ranked fourth.

(The teacher should read to the class the account of Washington's journey to New York and his inauguration, quoted in James, *Readings in American History*, 211–213. Have the pupils prepare to give a two-minute talk on this the next morning.)

Explain how Washington helped create the presidency.

In fifty words explain how Hamilton's method of taxation and of paying the debts of the nation and of the states made the government popular.

Tell the causes and the aims of the French Revolution.

In Dickens's *Tale of Two Cities*, read about the storming of the Bastille, Book 2, Chapter XXII.; and the Reign of Terror, Book 3, Chaps. IV. and V.

Debate the question, "Resolved, that the United States should have joined France in the war of 1793."

Select from Washington's *Farewell Address* (James, *Readings in American History*, 229) the three thoughts that seem most important to you.

In one hundred words explain why the Alien and Sedition Acts were passed during the Napoleonic War and similar ones during the World War.

In two paragraphs explain why Marshall deserves to rank high among the makers of the nation. (The teacher might read to the class Hart, *American History Told by Contemporaries*, III., 446–450.)

On an outline map of the United States, color the sixteen states in existence in 1796, and mark the dates of admission of Vermont, Kentucky, and Tennessee. Be careful of the boundaries of Massachusetts and Virginia. Keep the map for addition of other new states later.

References for Teachers.—McMaster, *Hist. of the People of the U. S.*, Vols. I., II.; Ford, *Washington and his Colleagues* (Chron. of Am.); Sparks, *Men Who Made the Nation*, 79–216; Channing, *Hist. of the U. S.*, IV., Chaps. I.–VIII.; Fish, *Development of Am. Nationality*, 44–80; Bassett, *Federalist System*, I.–III., XIV.–XIX.; Johnson, *Union and Democracy*, III., IV.–VI.; Ford, *George Washington;* Lodge, *Alexander Hamilton;* Sumner, *Alexander Hamilton;* Corwin, *John Marshall and the Constitution* (Chron. of Am.); Beveridge, *John Marshall.*

For Pupils.—Foote and Skinner, *Makers and Defenders of Am.*, 129–139; Barstow, *A New Nation* (Century Hist. Readers), 3–23; Brooks, *True Story of George Washington;* Coffin, *Building the Nation*, 21–41, 112–118; Elson, *Side Lights on Am. Hist.*, 54–79; Southworth, *Builders of Our Country*, II., Chap. IX.; Atherton, *The Conqueror* (fiction).

CHAPTER XVI

EXPANSION AND FOREIGN TROUBLE

The Republicans win.—John Adams was the last President elected by the Federalist party. In 1800 the Republican electors were in the majority, and gave their votes to Thomas Jefferson and to Aaron Burr of New York, each of whom received the same number. Under the original Constitution (later changed by the Twelfth Amendment), each elector voted for two men without indicating which was meant for President and which for Vice President. In case of a tie the House of Representatives had to elect one of the two to the presidency. Hamilton knew that Burr was not a man of character, and he used his influence to have the House elect Jefferson, although he and Jefferson were enemies. Burr later challenged Hamilton to a duel. The false notion of honor of the times demanded that Hamilton should accept the challenge. He received a fatal wound in the duel. From that time Burr lost his former influence, and he finally became an outcast. He was even charged with treason to his country, but the charge was not proved.

This election has been called the "Revolution of 1800." "Revolution" is too strong a word; but Jefferson's election was a step toward more democracy and political equality. This was one of the aims of the French Revolution.

President Thomas Jefferson.—Jefferson was President of the United States for two terms (1801–1809). He could have had a third term, but he said that he should follow Washington's example and help make it the custom for a President to retire after a second term. The Constitution says nothing about the number of terms that a President may serve; but the example of Washington and Jefferson has made a third term so unpopular that no President has been elected more than twice.

Jefferson was a well educated man for his time. He was a graduate of William and Mary College in Virginia, next to Harvard the oldest college in the country. He was considered the most gifted writer in the Second Continental Congress, and for that reason was chosen to prepare the Declaration of Independence (p. 186). As Secretary of State under Washington, minister to France, and Vice President, he had long been a national figure.

STATUE OF THOMAS JEFFERSON IN RICHMOND, VIRGINIA

He owned large plantations in Virginia and called himself a farmer. He loved country life and disliked cities so much that he thought yellow fever might be a blessing in disguise because he believed it would "discourage the growth of great cities in our nation." He would have been glad if the United States could have continued a nation of farmers.

The overseer of his farm said that he had found Jefferson idle in his room only twice in twenty years: once when he had the toothache and a second time when he had an attack of neuralgia. When past eighty, Jefferson said that for fifty years the rising sun had not caught him in bed.

Of the Presidents of the United States who have been dead for as long as half a century, Jefferson comes third in the frequency with which his name is mentioned in current literature. Washington and Lincoln alone surpass him in this respect.

What was Jeffersonian democracy?—Jefferson is especially noted for his democracy. This was a belief in the right of the common people to have a voice in the government. Jefferson was the first great leader of a party in the United States who spoke for more political equality among men. Those who did not believe in democracy said that he would destroy the government by turning it over to "the ignorant and incapable, who are the most numerous."

The foundation of Jefferson's trust in democracy rested on his belief that the great mass of the people were (1) anxious to govern themselves and (2) sufficiently intelligent to learn how. He believed that in learning how to govern themselves they would be using the best means to become more intelligent. He relied on the "teachableness of the great mass of the people." He did not believe that the people would make no mistakes, but he did believe that they would make fewer mistakes than kings, aristocrats, or a small body of ministers of state.

Simplicity and economy.—President Adams had ridden in a coach of state to his inauguration in Philadelphia. Jefferson thought that the officials of a democracy should be very simple in their manners. Toward the end of Adams's administration, the capital had been changed to the city of Washington, but Jefferson did not celebrate his inauguration in the new capital with any outward show. He walked like other citizens to the Capitol building to take the oath of office. Anyone who chose came unannounced to his receptions.

Jefferson planned the utmost economy in the government. He reduced the size of the army and saved naval expenses by selling some men-of-war and mooring others so that no men would need to be paid to take care of them. Jefferson appointed Albert Gal'latin, a Swiss by birth, to be the Secretary of the Treasury. He was very capable, and he shared Jefferson's desire to pay off the national debt. People used to say humorously of Gallatin that he would eat only half his dinner and wear only one shoe if he could thereby save money for the

government. In eight years, under his management of the treasury, the United States paid off about half of the national debt of eighty million dollars.

Danger in the interior.—Soon after Jefferson was inaugurated, Spain withdrew from the United States the right of depositing goods at New Orleans and of shipping them on ocean-going vessels. The American settlers in the interior were ready to go to war with Spain to take New Orleans. When Jefferson feared that he would have a war on his hands, he was astonished to find that Spain had by a secret treaty agreed to cede Louisiana to France. It would have been hard enough to fight a weak power like Spain, but France was far stronger. Jefferson thought for a time that he would be compelled to seek British aid to keep the Mississippi open for American produce. For such aid he would have been willing to give Great Britain all rights to the west bank of that river and to the lands beyond it.

Course of the French Revolution.—The most serious troubles of Jefferson's administration were due to foreign war. To understand his difficulties, we must know something of the later course of the French Revolution (p. 234) and of the rise of Napoleon, the new ruler of France. The French had, indeed, cut off the head of their king and established a republic, but these acts did not bring liberty. The Revolution passed into a Reign of Terror. A small governing committee of extremists, more despotic than the king had ever thought of being, was in authority, and in Paris alone it sometimes sent to the guil'lotine more than a hundred victims a week. At last people could endure such a state of things no longer, and the committee was overthrown and replaced by a temporary government.

Napoleon Bonaparte.—One day in 1795 (during Washington's second administration), an artillery officer twenty-seven years old was commissioned to defend the Convention which then governed France. He used his cannon so skillfully that he mowed down an advancing mob. People were astonished by his activity and energy. He seemed " to be everywhere at once."

Mob rule ceased. This artillery officer was Napoleon Bonaparte (1769–1821), who soon became one of the greatest generals of all time. In 1799 he made himself the ruler of France, and a few years later was crowned emperor.

Napoleon's most enduring work was the *Code Napoléon*, a system of laws for France. The influence of this code may be seen to-day in Italian, German, Spanish, and South American law. Before the French Revolution, France had had one law for the nobleman, another for the peasant. Napoleon's code enacted the same law for both. He insisted on legal equality as firmly as Jefferson on political equality. The *Code Napoléon* thus continued the work of the French Revolution. It helped to abolish serfdom and to give to western Europe a more liberal social system. After Napoleon became a prisoner on St. Hele'na, he gave this just estimate of his work: "My true glory is not that I have gained forty battles. Waterloo will efface the memory of those victories. But that which nothing can efface, which will live forever, is my civil code."

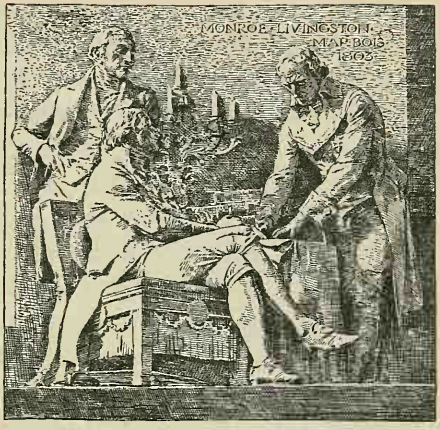
A maker of American history.—The reason why we should know something of Napoleon is because he is one of the great makers of American history. Those who have noted the frequency of the appearance of historical names in our popular literature say that Napoleon's name is mentioned more often than that of any other person who has been dead for half a century.

After Spain had ceded Louisiana to France, Jefferson asked Robert Liv'ingston, our minister to France, to try to purchase New Orleans and part of the strip of land known as West Florida, extending along the coast east of the Mississippi. Jefferson secured from Congress an appropriation of $2,000,000 to offer for this territory. He would have been willing to confirm France in possession of the land west of the Mississippi, for he did not think that region had much value.

Napoleon then appeared on the scene as a great actor in the drama of American history. "What would you give for all

UNITED STATES
1803
GULF OF MEXICO
PACIFIC OCEAN
ATLANTIC OCEAN
HUDSON'S BAY COMPANY
OREGON COUNTRY
Claimed by both Great Britain and the United States
LOUISIANA PURCHASE, 1803
TERRITORY OF INDIANA
SPANISH POSSESSIONS
Claimed and held by Spain
Extent of United States Claim
Route of Lewis and Clark Expedition 1804 to 1806
Boundary undefined
KENTUCKY
1792
TENNESSEE
1796
OHIO
1803
MISSISSIPPI TER.
1798
Added to Miss. Ter. 1802
Added to Mississippi Territory 1804
W. FLORIDA
E. FLORIDA
GEORGIA
SOUTH CAROLINA
NORTH CAROLINA
VIRGINIA
PENNSYLVANIA
NEW YORK
VER.
1791
NEW HAMP.
MASS.
CONN.
MD.
DEL.
WASHINGTON
BAHAMA ISLANDS
SCALE OF MILES
0 100 200 300 400
Dates of admission of states and establishment of organized territories are indicated thus......1803
Longitude West from Greenwich
120° 110° 100° 90° 80° 70°
40° 30°

Louisiana?" asked Napoleon's foreign representative of the surprised American minister. Although he and James Monroe', a special envoy to France to assist in the purchase, had no authority from their government, they agreed to pay $15,000,000 for all of Louisiana, on both sides of the Mississippi. In spite of the fact that the Constitution makes no definite statement about any right to purchase foreign territory, Jefferson had the good sense to buy it. One political party has often done what it has severely censured the other for doing. Chief Justice Marshall, whom Jefferson disliked, thought such a purchase constitutional.



SIGNING THE TREATY FOR THE LOUISIANA PURCHASE

Statue at the St. Louis Exposition, 1904. Marbois was the representative of the French government, as Monroe and Livingston were of the American.

Thus, by a stroke of his pen, Napoleon nearly doubled the area of the United States by deeding to it all Louisiana. The purchase price of $15,000,000 was an average of about three cents an acre for the entire tract, an amount less than the cost of a war of a few months' duration.

It is not possible to estimate Napoleon's influence, through the Louisiana cession, on the development of our country. So far as the United States is concerned, it is fortunate that he was then master of France and had to consult no one about the sale of Louisiana. He knew that war was coming with Great Britain, and he wanted money to prepare for it. He also feared that the British might take all Louisiana. If they had seized it, there might have been another permanent Canada west of the Mississippi, blocking our way to the Pacific. The transfer of the Louisiana territory took place in 1803. A jury of historians has called

this year the sixth most important date in American history (Appendix, p. xxiv). The Louisiana Purchase was far the greatest event in Jefferson's two administrations.

Extent of the Louisiana Purchase.—The Louisiana Purchase added 828,000 square miles to the area of 892,000 square miles in the United States after the treaty following the Revolution. It included New Orleans and, according to the interpretation of the United States, other territory east of the Mississippi between the American possessions and the Gulf. It also gave the United States the title to the vast tract west of the Mississippi, extending from the Gulf of Mexico to the British possessions on the north, to the Rocky Mountains on the west, and to the Spanish possessions on the southwest (maps following pp. 248, 258).

From the Louisiana Purchase have been formed the states of Louisiana, Arkansas, Missouri, Iowa, Nebraska, North and South Dakota, and the greater part of Minnesota, Oklahoma, Kansas, Colorado, Wyoming, and Montana.

The Lewis and Clark expedition.—Jefferson wished to have his new purchase explored, and to find an overland route "by the way of the Missouri and Columbia rivers to the Pacific Ocean" through Oregon, as the northwest territory beyond the Rocky Mountains was called. No white man had ever made this journey.

Jefferson's private secretary, Meriwether Lewis, a young Virginian under thirty, and his friend, Captain William Clark, a brother of George Rogers Clark (p. 202), were the capable leaders of the greatest exploring expedition ever made by Americans.

This expedition of forty-five people started from St. Louis in the spring of 1804, and went up the Missouri River in three boats. After a voyage of 1600 miles they encamped for the winter at Fort Mandan, near the present city of Bismarck, North Dakota. When they continued (April, 1805) the ascent of the Missouri, Lewis and Clark took with them a French interpreter and his Indian wife, named Sakakawea (sä-kȧ-kȧ-wē'ȧ), or

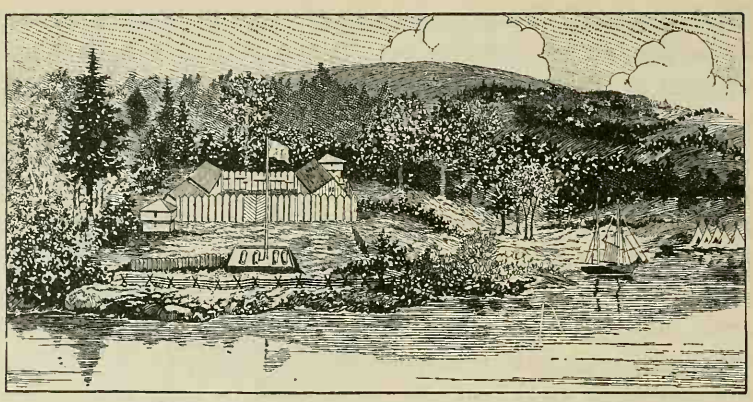
"Bird Woman." Sakakawea ranks next to Pocahontas among the heroines of American history. A hostile tribe of Indians had captured her five years before, near the headwaters of the Missouri, and sold her to the Frenchman who made her his wife. She was about nineteen years old, quick in her movements, interested in everything, modest, and faithful to the interests of Lewis and Clark. Like Pocahontas, Sakakawea was of royal stock, her brother being chief of the Shosho'ne tribe. She carried her young baby Indian fashion on her back. Captain Clark and Captain John Smith played opposite rôles with their Indian heroines. Smith says that Pocahontas saved his life, but Clark once rescued Sakakawea from drowning.

AN INDIAN'S BULL BOAT

Made of buffalo hide stretched over a wicker frame; used on the Missouri and other western rivers in early times. From a drawing made in 1833.

As they neared the mountains, she became sick, and Lewis and Clark were worried because they were depending on her finding her own tribe of Indians and inducing them to furnish horses to assist in making the portage over the mountains to streams flowing into the Pacific. The medical treatment given her shows how people were often doctored in those days. Clark bled her, and Lewis gave her diluted niter, laudanum, and "fifteen drops of the oil of vitriol." Fortunately she was young and strong and recovered in six days. She guided them to the Shoshone Indians and found her brother. Without her influence, horses might not have been obtained, and without them the expedition must have stopped. The horses carried the supplies across the divide, and the expedition was able to reach the Pacific in November (1805), after enduring many hardships.

East of the Rocky Mountains the men had feasted on buffalo and venison, but after crossing the mountains they often nearly



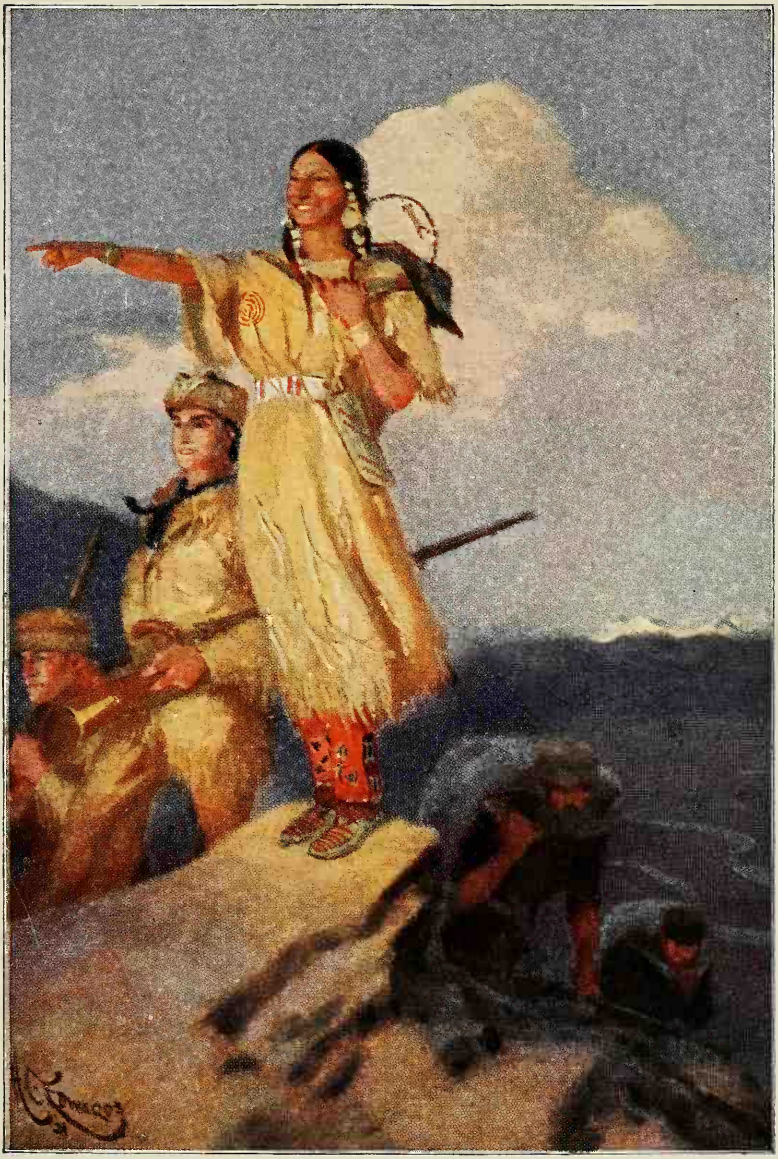
ASTORIA IN 1813. From a contemporary wood engraving.

starved. Sometimes they had only roots to eat. After such fare, Clark wrote in his journal, "Pane in stomach."

They spent the winter on the Pacific coast, studying the natives, the climate, the animals, and the prospects for trading in furs. They also worked hard at their journals to please Jefferson, who had begged each of them to write a full account.

In March, 1806, they started east and were delayed by heavy snows in the mountains. Sakakawea guided Clark's party when it was lost. Clark then went down the Yellowstone River to its junction with the Missouri, where he joined Lewis, who had explored the country farther north. At Fort Mandan they left Sakakawea and her baby. Clark wrote that she "deserved a greater reward for her attention and services on that route than we had in our power to give her." The United States has given her name to one of the finest peaks in the Bridger Range, overlooking the spot where she spent her childhood.

Results of the expedition.—Lewis and Clark were nearly two and a half years in making their great expedition. Their journal gives an account of what they saw—game, fur traders, Indians, rivers, climate, mosquitoes, salmon fishing, trees, and means of travel and subsistence. This was the first accurate information about a country, much of which no white man had ever visited.



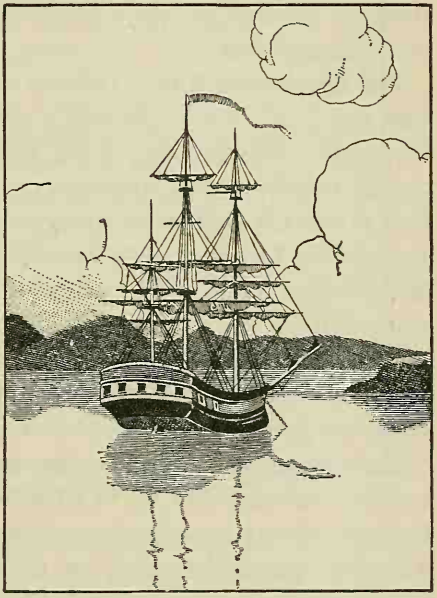
SAKAKAWEA, THE BIRD WOMAN

This Indian woman is represented as showing Lewis and Clark the land beyond the Rocky Mountains to which she had guided them. She is one of the heroines of American history.

The expedition was a necessary step toward our acquisition of the far Northwest, for the Louisiana Purchase did not extend beyond the Rocky Mountains.

In 1792 Captain Robert Gray, of Boston, had sailed his ship, the *Columbia*, into the mouth of the river which he named after his vessel. Thirteen years later, Lewis and Clark were the first to explore the country drained by the Columbia River. Six years after their coming, John Jacob Astor, of New York, established (1811) the fur-trading post of Astoria, near the mouth of the Columbia. The United States urged these claims of discovery and occupation when rival powers later made claims to the Oregon Territory.

The Lewis and Clark expedition suggested a series of western explorations, which lasted during forty years. A little more than a year after Lewis and Clark started, Zebulon Pike set out to discover the source of the Mississippi. He then explored the Louisiana Purchase farther to the south, and was the first white man to see Pikes Peak, in the Rocky Mountains. These explorations hastened the extension of our territory to the Pacific.



CAPTAIN GRAY'S SHIP, THE COLUMBIA, ON THE COLUMBIA RIVER

From pictures owned by the Oregon Historical Society.

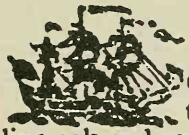
The Barbary pirates.—On the north coast of Africa there were four Mohammedan states—Morocco, Algiers, Tunis, and Tripoli—called the Barbary Powers. They lived partly on piracy or

on the tribute which nations paid to keep their ships from being taken. American merchant vessels were captured and their crews enslaved until they were ransomed. The United States had already paid these Barbary Powers more than $2,000,000 as tribute to keep them from preying on American commerce. Some of them now wanted more blackmail, but Jefferson used his arithmetic and found that it would be cheaper to send men-of-war to Africa than to continue paying tribute. Our war vessels went to Tripoli and forced the release of captured American sailors and also a promise to keep the peace (1805). At a later time (1815) we had to send another naval force to the Barbary States, but after that there was no more trouble of this kind with them. The American navy had its best early training in dealing with these pirates.

The Napoleonic War.—The war caused by the French Revolution was continued by Napoleon's struggle to become master of the world. This was one of the greatest wars in history, and it caused the death of 2,000,000 men. Napoleon's ambition made him a menace to human liberty. He had become emperor of France, but the power so attained was only a starting point for his ambition. For twelve years he used his military genius to make Europe subject to his will. By 1809 (the end of Jefferson's second administration) he was master of the greater part of Europe. During all this time Great Britain was fighting Napoleon, and the United States was neutral.

How American foreign commerce suffered.—Great Britain and France were engaged in a life-and-death struggle, and each tried to prevent the other from receiving supplies. Both nations declared "paper blockades," so called because they existed only on the paper declaring them. They were not enforced by the presence of blockading ships, as required by international law to make a blockade effective. Great Britain's paper blockade covered all nations under Napoleon's power, from Trieste (trē-ĕst′) to Copenha′gen. Napoleon's paper blockade forbade commerce with Great Britain.

The chief ports of the world were thus forbidden to American vessels. Ocean commerce was then a far greater proportion of the business of the United States than it is now. Our vessels carried to European ports not only our own products but those of South America and Asia. After these paper blockades,



FOR CALCUTTA,

The well known ship CITIZEN, C. Blakeman, master, burthen 285 tons, was built in Philadelphia of live oak and red cedar, and coppered in Liverpool about 11 months since, and in every respect is well fitted for the voyage, and is intended to be dispatched with all convenient speed. She will take on board merchandize or specie out, and will return direct to this port with goods, the manufacture of that country, to which effect she will be provided with a Supercargo, competent to the business of the voyage; and it is probable she may touch on her outward passage at Teneriffe, 150 or 200 pipes of wine will there be received on freight, if a contract for the same is made before sailing from here. For terms of which, or freight, or passage direct to Calcutta, apply to HOYT & TOM.

WHO HAVE FOR SALE,

600 boxes Havannah Sugars assorted
150,000 Spanish Segars, 30 crates Earthenware
2 hhds. and 3 bbls. St. Croix Sugars.
Nov. 16

ADVERTISEMENT IN NEW YORK EVENING POST IN 1801

French privateers might seize our vessels if they took wheat or cotton to England. If they carried things to France or to the nations fighting on her side, British men-of-war might capture them. Some of these seizures were legal, but most of them were not. By the law of nations, we had a right to carry to any port food and other articles not directly used in war.

Impressment of sailors.—Foreign nations to-day admit that their former citizens who have become naturalized in the United

States have all the rights of a native American. But during the Napoleonic War Great Britain and France disregarded naturalization papers, under an old European opinion that the subjects of one nation could not become citizens of another. Once an Englishman or a Frenchman, always an Englishman or a Frenchman, was the rule. It was customary for both British and French vessels to remove their subjects from the ships of other nations. Both of these powers searched American vessels and impressed (seized by force) their own subjects—and also some Americans—for service in their navies.

Great Britain and France both acted as if they could do as they pleased with the United States because she was then, in part owing to Jefferson's rigid economy (p. 246), very weak on the ocean. We had less trouble with France because Great Britain's navy was so powerful that few French vessels except privateers ventured out of port. The war was called a struggle between the shark and the tiger. Great Britain, the shark, controlled the ocean, and Napoleon, the tiger, was long master on the land.

To maintain her control of the ocean, Great Britain increased the impressment of sailors for her navy. Service in it was not popular, because the pay was low and the treatment often harsh. The higher wages attracted British sailors to American vessels. In the war with the Barbary Powers (p. 253), American men-of-war were often largely manned by British sailors, who could get naturalization papers legally by serving on American vessels a few months. Other British sailors procured these papers illegally. Claiming the right to impress any of her subjects, Great Britain impressed not only British sailors and naturalized Americans, but also many who were in fact native-born Americans.

The Chesapeake impressment.—The worst impressment outrage happened in 1807, when an American frigate, the *Chesapeake*, refused to be searched at sea. The *Leopard*, a British man-of-war, fired on her, killing or wounding twenty-one of her

crew. The *Leopard* then impressed four of her sailors—one British deserter and three Americans. Our country wanted war at once, but Jefferson avoided it. The British prime minister expressed his "sincere concern and sorrow" for the affair and offered reparation. Jefferson issued a proclamation forbidding British men-of-war to enter our ports, but he allowed French vessels to continue to visit our harbors. Our first two Presidents, George Washington (pp. 235, 236) and John Adams (p. 240), had set the example of avoiding war. Jefferson sincerely believed that he also could secure the desired results by peaceful means.

The Embargo Act.—Jefferson did not think it necessary to maintain a powerful navy to protect our commerce. By his advice Congress passed an Embargo Act (December 22, 1807) which forbade our vessels to sail for any foreign port. He thought that this measure would (1) keep our ships from being captured, and (2) starve Europe into showing respect for our flag. The embargo hurt us more than it harmed Europe. Our farmers, shipowners, sailors, and merchants suffered. In New England the merchants complained that the embargo caused them a loss of $8,000,000 in fifteen months, and a boy of fourteen, who later became the author of *Thanatopsis* (William Cullen Bryant), was moved to write a satire called *The Embargo* to express the feeling against Jefferson.

Dissatisfaction became so bitter that even Jefferson consented to abandon the embargo, and Congress repealed the law on the day he left office (March 4, 1809). A Non-Intercourse Act prohibiting commerce with Great Britain and France, but allowing our vessels to trade with other nations, was passed by Congress to take the place of the embargo. Jefferson's foreign policy ended in disappointment, but nothing can dim the glory of his Louisiana Purchase.

Summary of Points of Emphasis for Review.—(1) Defeat of the Federalists and election of Jefferson, (2) Jefferson's activities and qualities, (3) Jeffersonian democracy, (4) trouble in shipping goods down the Mississippi.

(5) French Revolution, (6) Napoleon a maker of American history, (7) Louisiana Purchase and its extent, (8) Lewis and Clark expedition and results, (9) Barbary pirates, (10) how American commerce suffered from the Napoleonic War, (11) impressment of sailors, (12) embargo, (13) Non-Intercourse Act.

Activities.—Make a map of the United States showing the Louisiana Purchase and the route of the Lewis and Clark expedition.

Write one hundred words to show that Napoleon was a maker of American history.

Tell the class what might have resulted from failure to secure the Louisiana Territory.

Read to the class extracts from the Lewis and Clark journals in James, *Readings in American History*, 258–265, or in Hart, *American History Told by Contemporaries*, III., 381–384. Give a three-minute talk on the Lewis and Clark expedition.

Give a five-minute talk on Jefferson's foreign troubles, their causes, and how he dealt with them.

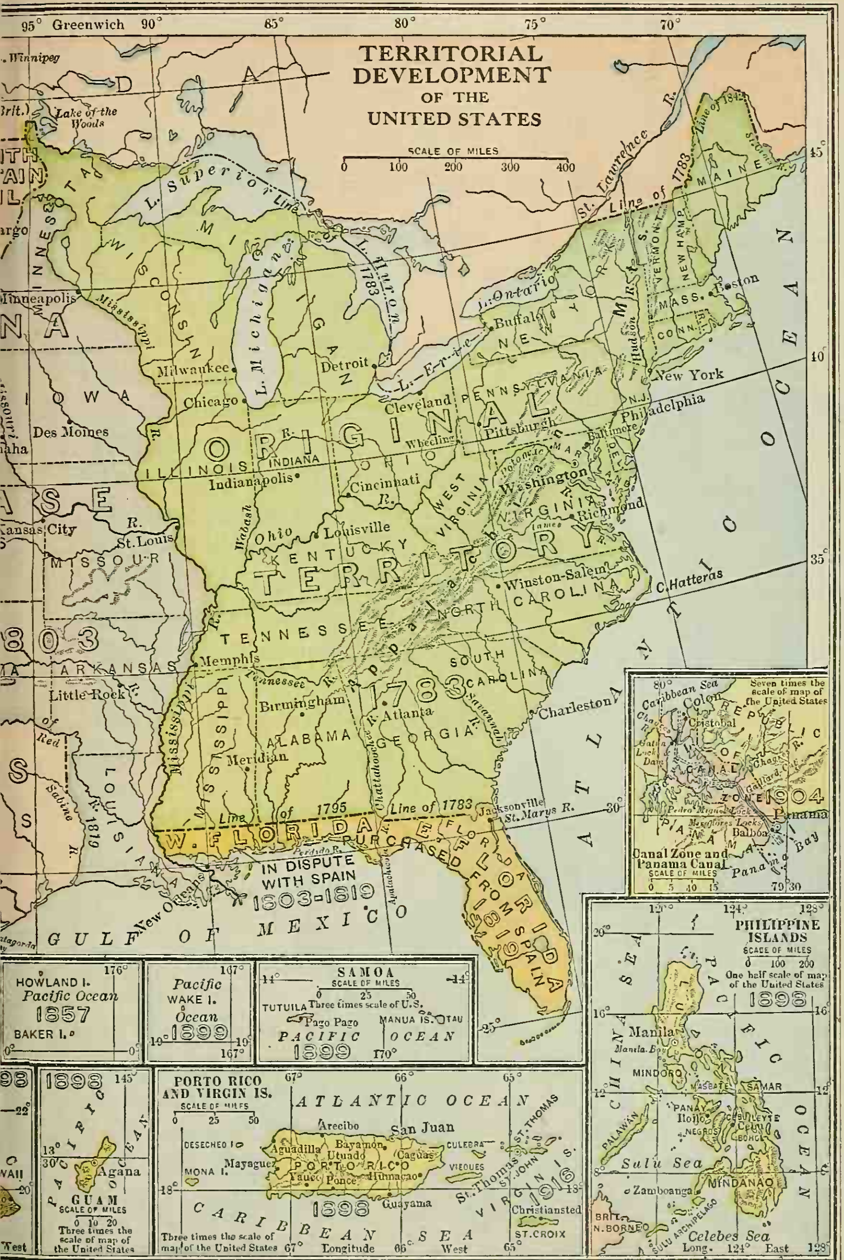
Explain to the class how the European idea of citizenship differed from the American.

Be able to talk for three minutes on the aim and effect of the embargo. Quote the opinion of Justice Joseph Story on the repeal of the Embargo (Hart, *American History Told by Contemporaries*, III., 407–409).

References for Teachers.—Fish, *Development of Am. Nationality*, 81–106; Henry Adams, *Hist. of the U. S., 1801–1817*, Vols. I.–IV.; Allen Johnson, *Jefferson and his Colleagues* (Chron. of Am.), 1–169; Biography of Jefferson by Ford, Morse, or Muzzey; Channing, *Hist. of the U. S.*, Vol. IV.; Sparks, *Men Who Made the Nation*, 218–240, and *Expansion of the Am. People*, 188–219; Roosevelt, *Winning of the West*, IV., 258–328; Thwaites, *Rocky Mountain Exploration*, 92–187; Wheeler, *Trail of Lewis and Clark;* Gass, *Journal of the Lewis and Clark Expedition;* Quaife, *Journals of Captain Meriwether Lewis and Sergeant John Ordway* (Wis. State Hist. Soc.); Hart, *Am. Hist. Told by Contemporaries*, III., 363–384; Biography of Napoleon by Fournier, Sloane, or Rose.

For Pupils.—Elson, *Side Lights on Am. Hist.*, 96–115; Wright, *Children's Stories of Am. Progress*, 55–103; Foote and Skinner, *Makers and Defenders of Am.*, 117–128; McMurry, *Pioneers of the Rocky Mts. and the West*, 1–40; Grinnell, *Trails of the Pathfinders;* Schultz, *Bird Woman (Sakakawea), the Guide of Lewis and Clark.*

Longitude
West
Line of 1846
Line proposed by Gt. Brit. 1827
Columbia R.
Seattle
WASHINGTON
OREGON COUNTRY
IN DISPUTE WITH GREAT BRITAIN UNTIL 1846
Portland
PACIFIC OCEAN
Snake
Butte
ROCKY
MONTANA
Missouri
Line of 1818
IN DISPUTE GREAT B
NORTH DAKOTA
James
Yellowstone
IDAHO
Boise
OREGON
SOUTH DAKOTA
LOUISIANA PURCHASE
WYOMING
Sioux F
Great Salt L.
Salt Lake City
NEBRASKA
Cheyenne
Platte
MEXICAN CESSION 1848
Reno
San Francisco
NEVADA
Sierra Nevada
CALIFORNIA
UTAH
Denver
COLORADO
Line of 1819
KANSAS
Texas Line claimed by
Santa Fe
Albuquerque
NEW MEXICO
Los Angeles
ARIZONA
Colorado
Gila
R.
GADSDEN PURCHASE 1853
LOWER CALIFORNIA
Gulf of California
Oklahoma City
Rio Grande
TEXAS 1845
Pecos
Mexican Boundary of Texas
Nueces
Austin
San Ant
ARCTIC OCEAN
Pt. Barrow
ARCTIC CIRCLE
ASIA
Bering Strait
1867
Nome
Yukon R.
Tanana R.
Fairbanks
Mt. McKinley
Alaska Mts.
Valdez
Dawson
Mackenzie R.
CANADA
Skagway
Juneau
Sitka
KODIAK I.
BERING SEA
ALEUTIAN IS.
PACIFIC OCEAN
QUEEN CHARLOTTE IS.
ALASKA
SCALE OF MILES
0 200 400 600
One half scale of map of the United States
East 180° 170° Longitude 160° West from 150° Greenwich 140°
NIIHAU
KAUAI
OAHU
Honolulu
KAULA
KAHOOLA
Pacific
MIDWAY I.
Ocean
Same scale


TERRITORIAL DEVELOPMENT OF THE UNITED STATES
SCALE OF MILES
0 100 200 300 400
95° Greenwich 90° 85° 80° 75° 70°
ORIGINAL TERRITORY 1783
W. FLORIDA
PURCHASED FROM SPAIN 1819
FLORIDA
IN DISPUTE WITH SPAIN 1803-1819
Line of 1783
Line of 1795
Line of 1842
ATLANTIC OCEAN
GULF OF MEXICO
MAINE
VERMONT
NEW HAMP.
MASS.
CONN.
R.I.
NEW YORK
PENNSYLVANIA
N.J.
DEL.
MARYLAND
VIRGINIA
WEST VIRGINIA
NORTH CAROLINA
SOUTH CAROLINA
GEORGIA
ALABAMA
MISSISSIPPI
TENNESSEE
KENTUCKY
OHIO
INDIANA
ILLINOIS
MICHIGAN
WISCONSIN
MINNESOTA
IOWA
MISSOURI
ARKANSAS
LOUISIANA
Boston
New York
Philadelphia
Baltimore
Washington
Richmond
Pittsburgh
Buffalo
Cleveland
Detroit
Chicago
Milwaukee
Minneapolis
Des Moines
Indianapolis
Cincinnati
Louisville
St. Louis
Kansas City
Memphis
Little Rock
Birmingham
Atlanta
Meridian
Charleston
Jacksonville
Winston-Salem
Wheeling
New Orleans
C. Hatteras
L. Superior
L. Michigan
L. Huron
L. Erie
L. Ontario
St. Lawrence R.
Lake of the Woods
Mississippi R.
Ohio R.
Tennessee R.
Wabash
Red
Sabine
St. Marys R.
Canal Zone and Panama Canal
SCALE OF MILES
0 5 10 15
Seven times the scale of map of the United States
Caribbean Sea
Colon
Cristobal
Gatun Lock Dam
CANAL ZONE 1904
Pedro Miguel Lock
Miraflores Locks
Balboa
Panama
Panama Bay
REPUBLIC OF PANAMA
PHILIPPINE ISLANDS
SCALE OF MILES
0 100 200
One half scale of map of the United States
1898
Manila
Manila Bay
MINDORO
MASBATE
SAMAR
PANAY
Iloilo
NEGROS
CEBU
LEYTE
BOHOL
PALAWAN
Sulu Sea
Zamboanga
MINDANAO
SULU ARCHIPELAGO
BRIT. N. BORNEO
Celebes Sea
CHINA SEA
PACIFIC OCEAN
Long. 124° East
HOWLAND I.
Pacific Ocean
1857
BAKER I.
Pacific
WAKE I.
Ocean
1899
SAMOA
SCALE OF MILES
0 25 50
TUTUILA Three times scale of U.S.
Pago Pago
MANUA IS.
TAU
PACIFIC OCEAN
1899
1898
GUAM
Agana
PACIFIC OCEAN
SCALE OF MILES
0 10 20
Three times the scale of map of the United States
PORTO RICO AND VIRGIN IS.
SCALE OF MILES
0 25 50
ATLANTIC OCEAN
Arecibo
San Juan
Aguadilla
Bayamon
Utuado
Caguas
Mayaguez
PORTO RICO
Yauco
Ponce
Humacao
Guayama
1898
DESECHEO I.
MONA I.
CULEBRA
VIEQUES
ST. THOMAS
ST. JOHN
VIRGIN IS.
1916
Christiansted
ST. CROIX
CARIBBEAN SEA
Three times the scale of map of the United States
Longitude West

CHAPTER XVII

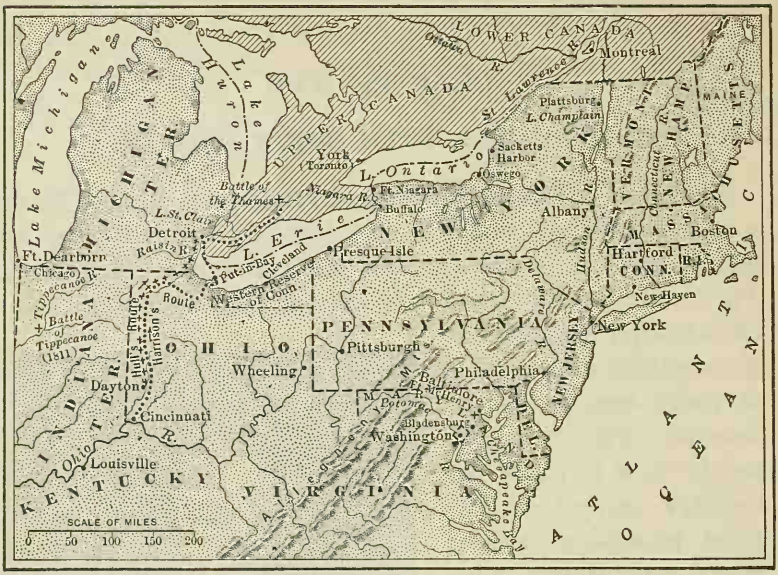
SECOND WAR WITH GREAT BRITAIN

Election of Madison; influence of young men.—James Madison of Virginia (p. 220), who like Jefferson was Anti-federalist and Republican, succeeded him for two terms (1809–1817). The foreign troubles which had worried Jefferson reached their climax under Madison. In his administration a group of young men became influential. They were willing to fight to make our country respected. The most prominent among them was Henry Clay (1777–1852), an eloquent young lawyer from Kentucky. He said that we had been insulted by almost all Europe, that even the contemptible Barbary Powers had spit on us. He was elected speaker of the national House of Representatives, and he organized it in favor of war. He carried people with him when he told of the wrongs done to the United States and declared that no one would respect us if we were too cowardly to fight.

HENRY CLAY

From a painting in the collection of the Long Island Historical Society.

Whom should we fight?—There was a difference of opinion in regard to this question. Some thought we should fight Great Britain. Others said that she was the only hope of humanity to



THE WAR OF 1812

resist Napoleon, and that, if we must fight, we should make war on him. Both Great Britain and France had declared illegal blockades. Both had seized our vessels of commerce. Great Britain had taken nearly a thousand of them, and France, half that number. Napoleon had even seized and sold American ships in French ports.

The Republicans as a party liked France and disliked Great Britain. The Federalists from Washington's time saw more to admire in Great Britain than in France.

The deciding reasons.—Great Britain had impressed far more of our seamen than had France. The Republican war cry, "6257!" meant that these figures represented the number of our sailors impressed by Great Britain, according to the complaints filed with the Secretary of State.

France did not menace the northwestern frontier, but Great Britain's subjects did. The British had the valuable Indian fur trade of the Northwest, and they were interested in having the

Indians keep their lands and drive out the settlers. The Indians exchanged part of their furs for British rifles with which they killed settlers. Americans believed that British fur traders were urging the Indians to form a confederacy under an Indian chief named Tecum'seh. The Indians became so troublesome that William Henry Harrison, governor of Indiana Territory, marched against them and defeated them in the battle of Tippecanoe (tĭp-e-ka-nōō′) in northwestern Indiana (1811). Men also remembered the injuries received from Great Britain during the Revolution, and still felt grateful to France for aid in securing our independence.

Declaration of war.—President Madison sent a message to Congress which meant war. He said nothing about abuses by Napoleon but confined himself to "the subject of our affairs with Great Britain."

Congress declared war against Great Britain (June 18, 1812) by a small majority, in the face of strong opposition. In New England, where shipbuilding and sea commerce enabled many to earn a living, flags were placed at half mast when the declaration was known. In this section, from which the greatest number of sailors had been impressed, there was the least desire for war. Those most in favor of war were those who lived inland or where there were few seaports and few ships owned.

If there had been an Atlantic cable, the conflict might have been avoided, for on the day before our declaration of war Great Britain announced her intention of repealing the blockade orders that had caused such loss to our commerce. War had begun before sailing vessels could bring this news.

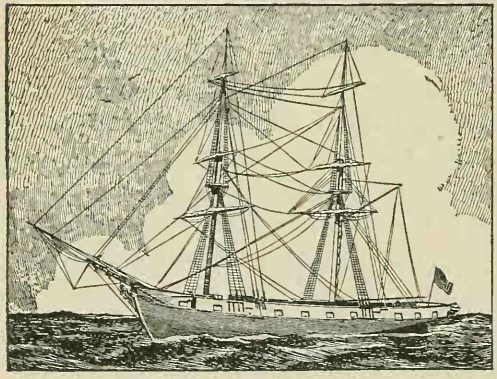
Canada, the goal of the war.—Those in favor of war did not think of taking an army to Great Britain. They proposed to conquer Canada and then make peace. Clay declared that the militia of Kentucky alone could take Montreal and Upper Canada and that we could negotiate peace at Quebec or Halifax. John C. Calhoun (kăl-hōōn′, 1782–1850), a young man from South Carolina, who later became one of the South's greatest

statesmen, said that most of Canada could be seized in four weeks.

Lack of preparation.—Unpreparedness does not keep a nation from going to war. The United States then lacked three essentials for successful war on land: (1) a sufficient number of trained soldiers; (2) good leaders; and (3) means for transporting men, provisions, and cannon. Our entire army did not then number more than 7000. There were no good roads to carry men and supplies to Canada.

War in Canada and on the northern lakes.—The Canadians, many of them descendants of the loyalists whom the Revolution had driven from the United States to face the hard conditions of life in the forests of Canada, did not welcome the idea of annexation. They drove General William Hull, a veteran of the Revolution, out of Canada and then captured him and his army of 2000 in Detroit (1812). Early in the next year a body of nearly a thousand Kentucky militia was defeated on the Raisin River, in southeastern Michigan.

Since there were then no railways, nor even good roads, the only easy way to move men and supplies was by water. Both sides, therefore, tried to get control of the east-and-west water routes of Lake Erie and Lake Ontario and the north-and-south route on Lake Champlain.



PERRY'S FLAGSHIP

From a replica built in Erie, Pennsylvania, in 1913, in celebration of the hundredth anniversary of the battle.

Oliver H. Perry, the American naval commander on Lake Erie, built a fleet at Erie, —then called Presque Isle (presk-ēl′),— Pennsylvania, and attacked the British fleet. Perry's flagship

was soon disabled and four fifths of her crew were killed or wounded. He escaped from her in a rowboat to another vessel. With the rest of the American fleet he fought with such energy as to capture the entire British squadron (September, 1813). Perry then wrote his famous dispatch to General William Henry Harrison (p. 261), who had taken Hull's place: "We have met the enemy and they are ours."

General Harrison had now been idle nearly a year, awaiting American control of Lake Erie. After Perry's victory, the American fleet carried Harrison's army and supplies to Canada. Harrison recaptured Detroit and soon won the battle of the Thames (tĕmz), fought on a small river north of Lake Erie (October, 1813). Here he defeated a mixed force of Canadians and Indians, and killed Tecumseh, their chief. This victory put an end to the alliance between the British and the Indians.

Several hard battles were fought near the Niagara River, but they did not give the Americans a foot of Canadian soil.

The defeat of Napoleon in Europe at last made it possible for Great Britain to send reënforcements to Canada. The British now determined to drive a wedge into New York, along Burgoyne's former route (p. 192). This might have been possible if Thomas MacDon'ough, commander of the American fleet on Lake Champlain, had not used his vessels so skillfully that he compelled the stronger British fleet to surrender (1814). His victory kept the British from driving the wedge farther south.

MEDAL GIVEN BY CONGRESS TO COMMODORE MACDONOUGH

New York gave him 2000 acres of land, and Vermont 200 acres, overlooking the site of the battle.

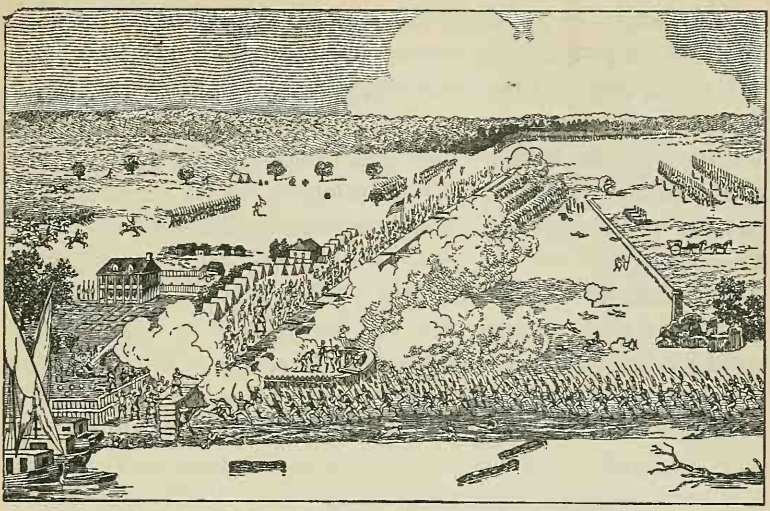
The British capture Washington and attack Baltimore.—A force of about 5000 British regulars landed at Chesapeake Bay

(1814) and marched on Washington. They put to flight a force of 7500 American militia assembled at Bla'densburg to defend the capital. With the work of the militia we should compare that of 400 trained sailors under Captain Joshua Barney. While the militia were fleeing past them, these sailors held 4000 British soldiers at bay and inflicted heavy losses on them. Not until Barney was prostrate from a wound and the British bayonets had carried their front and were closing on their flank, did the survivors yield.

The British, under orders from their government, now burned the Capitol at Washington, the President's house, and other public buildings. They declared that this was done as a "reprisal in kind" for the burning of the parliament buildings at York (now Toronto) when an American force made a brief invasion of Upper Canada (1813).

The British left Washington and attacked Baltimore, but were driven off by a brave body of militia. Fort McHenry kept the British fleet from bombarding the city. Francis Scott Key wrote *The Star-Spangled Banner* to commemorate this successful defense.

War on the ocean.—The first year of war on the sea was as glorious for the Americans as the fighting on land was disappointing. Great Britain then had more than a thousand warships; the United States, only sixteen. The American man-of-war *Constitution* met the British frigate *Guerrière* (gâr-ryâr') 800 miles from land (August 19, 1812). The British were as sure that the *Guerrière* could whip any American vessel as Clay and Calhoun were that we could conquer Canada. In half an hour the American cannon crippled the British ship so that it had to surrender. In a few months American ships won a number of brilliant naval duels, but as the war progressed and Napoleon weakened, Great Britain sent over enough ships to blockade our ports and make more naval victories impossible. In the last days of the war, swift-sailing privateers which preyed on British commerce were almost the only American vessels on the ocean.



BATTLE OF NEW ORLEANS. From a contemporary drawing.

Battle of New Orleans.—The last land battle of the War of 1812 is one in which Americans take special pride, although it was fought too late to count in making terms of peace. The British fleet brought a large body of veteran soldiers to the Gulf of Mexico to seize New Orleans, in order to acquire possession of the Mississippi and the interior of the continent.

Andrew Jackson, the greatest general in this war, was in command at New Orleans. He had recently become famous for defeating the Creek Indians after they had massacred more than 400 settlers in Alabama. Fifty-three hundred British soldiers tried to storm the fortifications which Jackson had hastily thrown up to protect New Orleans. He had a much smaller force, but there were in his army many Kentucky and Tennessee riflemen who could hit the head of a wild turkey as far as they could see it. Firing from behind their ramparts of earth and logs, they killed or wounded about 2000 of the British in twenty-five minutes, while the American loss was only 71. The British abandoned the field and soon sailed to the West Indies.

The battle of New Orleans (January 8, 1815) is one of the

famous battles of American history, and it made the Americans feel that they were the victors at the close of the war. The battle was won by the frontiersmen of the West against veteran British soldiers who had fought Napoleon. The victory made the West realize its importance and determine to take more of a hand in the government of the United States. It led later to the election of Andrew Jackson, the most democratic of all the Presidents.

Dissatisfaction with the war.—The war was not popular enough to cause a sufficient number of men to volunteer for service in the army. James Monroe, Secretary of War, asked for a law to draft enough soldiers to raise a force of 100,000, but Congress would not pass such a law. Before the close of the war, New England's commerce had suffered so severely that there was much unemployment and discontent. Nearly 250 vessels were idle in Boston alone. Some New England states would not

CARICATURE OF THE HARTFORD CONVENTION

From an original owned by the Pennsylvania Historical Society. Massachusetts is represented as urging Connecticut and Rhode Island to leap into the arms of Great Britain. This caricature was made by the enemies of New England because there was a difference of opinion about the War of 1812. Few really believed that any New England state would ever join Great Britain.

put their militia at the disposal of the President. When Maine, then a part of Massachusetts, was attacked by the British, the national government retaliated by refusing to send troops to defend it.

A body known as the Hartford Convention, composed of Federalist delegates from the New England states, met at Hartford, Connecticut, and denounced the war. They demanded amendments to the Constitution to prevent such a state of affairs in the future. One proposed amendment called for a two-thirds majority of both houses of Congress to pass such laws as the Embargo Act (p. 257) and to declare war. If such a majority had been necessary in 1812, war would not have been declared, since those in favor of it were not able to get a two-thirds majority. This convention had messengers carry its demands to Washington. When they arrived, the city had just learned of the victory at New Orleans and of the treaty of peace. This happy turn in the tide of affairs made the protests of the Federalists unpopular and completed the wreck of their party.

Treaty of peace.—If there had been an Atlantic cable, the battle of New Orleans (January 8, 1815) would not have been fought. In a meeting at Ghent (gĕnt), Belgium, commissioners from the United States and Great Britain agreed on the terms of peace, the day before Christmas, 1814. News of this did not reach New York until February 11, 1815. A courier started for Boston that night and shouted the news as he galloped through the towns. When he reached Boston, thirty-two hours after starting, all the bells rang, the schools were given a holiday, and hundreds of blockaded ships ran the American flag to the masthead.

The United States promptly ratified the treaty, which was little else than an agreement to stop fighting and to restore prisoners of war and captured territory. At the close of the war, the eastern part of Maine, and Astoria in Oregon, were in the possession of Great Britain. In accordance with the treaty Great Britain gave these up and accepted the boundaries of 1812 between Canada and the United States.

AFTER THE SIGNING OF THE TREATY OF GHENT, 1814

The chief British representative is at the left. The American representatives, from left to right, are John Quincy Adams, Albert Gallatin, Christopher Hughes, James A. Bayard, Jonathan Russell, Henry Clay. From the historical painting by Forestier, made in 1914.

Results of the war.—Impressment, the chief grievance, came to a natural end after the downfall of Napoleon, because large numbers of sailors were no longer needed for British war vessels. The defeat of Tecumseh and the Indians who had allied themselves with the British, freed the Northwest from its former fear of the savages. Settlers were no longer afraid to make homes in that region. New England saw hard times during the War of 1812 and after it, and many of its citizens went west. The birth of a new West was one of the greatest events in American history following the War of 1812.

The war stopped most imports and caused Americans, espe-

cially in New England, to build factories to make many things which had previously been imported from Europe. After the war, Americans felt for awhile that they could go their own way without paying any attention to the rest of the world. The war made the people more American "and they felt and acted more as a nation."

Peace brought quick prosperity to most of the people. Near the close of the war Thomas Jefferson said that he was like Tantalus in the midst of crops which he could not sell to buy groceries. Peace gave him and other farmers a chance to sell to Europe at once, and at higher prices than before, the surplus harvests of three years. Our shipping increased rapidly and carried cargoes on every sea.

A great record.—Peace between the English-speaking peoples of the world has lasted for more than one hundred years, following the War of 1812. During that time the United States and Canada have made a record unknown in the previous history of the world and not equaled in the Europe of to-day. Along the three thousand miles of border between the two countries, there is not a single fort. No man-of-war belonging to either country can be found on the Great Lakes. The money that might have been used for forts, soldiers, and navies has been employed to produce food, to build homes, and to educate the people. This record shows that two countries can rely on each other's sense of honor and love of fair play and thereby avoid the agony of war.

Close of Napoleon's career.—Americans did not expect the War of 1812 to end so soon, for Great Britain's hands had seemed to be freed when Napoleon was forced to leave France and become an exile on the island of Elba (April, 1814). But in March, 1815, three months after the treaty of Ghent, Napoleon escaped from Elba and was welcomed in France by the poorer classes and the soldiers. He placed himself at the head of the French army, and Europe was again in danger. Great Britain was then glad that she did not have an American war on her

hands. The combined British and Prussian forces, under Wellington and Blücher (blü'ker), fought and defeated Napoleon on the world-famous field of Waterloo (June, 1815).

The long European war was now soon ended. A British ship took Napoleon to the island of St. Helena, where he died six years later.

Summary of Points of Emphasis for Review.—(1) Influence of young men, (2) choice of fighting Great Britain or France, (3) what determined the choice, (4) goal of the war, (5) lack of preparation, (6) war in Canada and on the Lakes, (7) capture of Washington and attack on Baltimore, (8) war on the ocean, (9) battle of New Orleans, (10) dissatisfaction with the war, (11) treaty of peace, (12) results of the war, (13) should the war have been fought? (14) what a century's peace between the United States and Canada shows, (15) how Napoleon figured in the war, end of his career.

Activities.—In three minutes tell the class why the United States fought Great Britain.

Debate the question whether we should have fought Great Britain or France (p. 260).

Put yourself in the place of a Canadian of 1812 and tell whether you would have welcomed annexation to the United States.

Why were battles then fought on the Great Lakes and on Lake Champlain? Why are there no men-of-war now on these lakes?

On a map indicate by red crosses the places of American victories in the War of 1812.

Read O. W. Holmes's poem, *Old Ironsides*.

References for Teachers.—Fish, *Development of Am. Nationality*, 108–126; Henry Adams, *Hist. of the U. S., 1801–1817*, Vols. V.–IX.; Allen Johnson, *Jefferson and his Colleagues* (Chron. of Am.), 189–264; Channing, *Hist. of the U. S.*, Vol. IV.; Schurz, *Henry Clay;* Paine, *Old Merchant Marine*, Chaps. VI., VII., and *Fight for a Free Sea* (both in Chron. of Am.); Roosevelt, *Naval War of 1812;* Allen Johnson, *Union and Democracy;* Hart, *Am. Hist. Told by Contemporaries*, III., 410–433.

For Pupils.—Blaisdell and Ball, *Hero Stories from Am. Hist.*, 156–168; Roosevelt and Lodge, *Hero Tales from Am. Hist.*, 139–147; Coffin, *Building the Nation*, 149–231; Beebe, *Four Am. Naval Heroes*, 71–130; Wright, *Children's Stories of Am. Progress*, 130–144; Hart, *How Our Grandfathers Lived*, 239–255, 274–312.

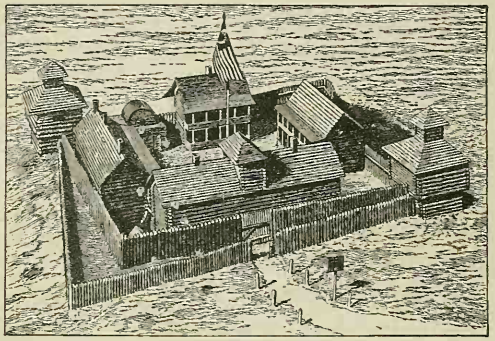
Fiction: Hale, *Man Without a Country;* Seawell, *Little Jarvis;* Altsheler, *Herald of the West;* Pyle, *Within the Capes;* Eggleston, *Captain Sam.*

CHAPTER XVIII

AMERICAN PROBLEMS, 1815 TO 1829

Facing the West.—From Washington's Proclamation of Neutrality (1793) between Great Britain and France until the end of the War of 1812, the country had been compelled to turn much of its attention to the East. After the War of 1812, our sailors were no longer impressed and our ships could sail the ocean without danger from European powers.

In this new period the nation faced the West and was busy with its own problems.



FORT DEARBORN

Built on the site of Chicago in 1803; burned in 1812; rebuilt in 1816. This drawing is from a model owned by the Chicago Historical Society.

The American System.—The embargo and the War of 1812 showed how dependent on Europe the United States had been for many manufactured articles. The ending of the War of 1812 marks the beginning of a period of more complete industrial independence. The Revolution had brought independence in government but not in industry. Some have called the War of 1812 our "Second Declaration of Independence."

The right-about face from European problems to home interests led to what has been called the "American System," which consisted in (1) protection to American manufactures and industries, and (2) the development of internal improvements, such as roads and canals. The object of the American System

was the development of the United States into a great, self-reliant nation, industrially as well as politically independent of foreign powers.

The rapid settlement of the West and the interest shown in keeping the American continent free for the development of Americans were different expressions of the American System. Henry Clay of Kentucky was the greatest champion of this "System." In Congress he argued against neglecting a single American interest, no matter whether it was "agricultural, commercial, or manufacturing."

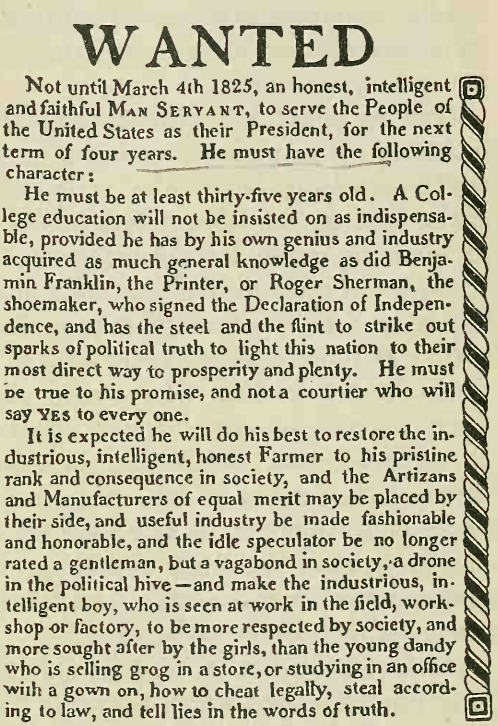
The administrations of James Monroe (1817–1825) and John Quincy Adams (1825–1829) covered the twelve years after Madison retired from the presidency, and helped solve the new problems of the American System.

James Monroe elected President.—Madison followed the example of Washington and Jefferson and declined nomination for a third term. James Monroe was elected in 1816 by a large majority over his Federalist opponent. Like Washington, Jefferson, and Madison, he was a Virginian.

Monroe had served in the Revolutionary War and was wounded while leading the advance at Trenton (p. 191). Washington had appointed him minister to France, but had to recall him for showing too much partiality to the French. When Jefferson became President, Monroe was sent back to France, where he assisted in making the Louisiana Purchase (p. 249). He was next appointed minister to Great Britain and later became Madison's Secretary of State. People then thought that a President should have the experience that fitted him for such a high office, and they felt that Monroe had earned the presidency.

Monroe was able to make friends, even of people who had real or fancied grievances. His first administration was known as "the era of good feeling." When he was elected for a second term, he had no opponent. He then received the vote of every elector except one.

John Quincy Adams succeeds Monroe.—When Monroe retired (1825), the man in the United States who had the most ideal training for the presidency was John Quincy Adams, the son of John Adams. John Quincy Adams was a Puritan of the old type, who enjoyed doing his duty, especially if it was disagreeable. He was born not far from Boston, nearly eight years before the battle of Bunker Hill, and he died only thirteen years before our Civil War. During the greater part of this time he was busy with the affairs of the nation. He had very little boyhood. When he was nine he expressed his sorrow that he thought too much of "birds' eggs, play, and trifles." Before he was fifteen, he was in Russia as private secretary to the American envoy. He traveled and studied much abroad, but he decided that an American education was best for Americans, and of his own accord he left his father, then American minister in London, and returned to go through Harvard College.



WANTED

Not until March 4th 1825, an honest, intelligent and faithful MAN SERVANT, to serve the People of the United States as their President, for the next term of four years. He must have the following character:

He must be at least thirty-five years old. A College education will not be insisted on as indispensable, provided he has by his own genius and industry acquired as much general knowledge as did Benjamin Franklin, the Printer, or Roger Sherman, the shoemaker, who signed the Declaration of Independence, and has the steel and the flint to strike out sparks of political truth to light this nation to their most direct way to prosperity and plenty. He must be true to his promise, and not a courtier who will say YES to every one.

It is expected he will do his best to restore the industrious, intelligent, honest Farmer to his pristine rank and consequence in society, and the Artizans and Manufacturers of equal merit may be placed by their side, and useful industry be made fashionable and honorable, and the idle speculator be no longer rated a gentleman, but a vagabond in society, a drone in the political hive—and make the industrious, intelligent boy, who is seen at work in the field, workshop or factory, to be more respected by society, and more sought after by the girls, than the young dandy who is selling grog in a store, or studying in an office with a gown on, how to cheat legally, steal according to law, and tell lies in the words of truth.

CAMPAIGN HANDBILL PRINTED IN 1824

Before he was thirty he was selected by Washington to be minister to Holland. He became United States senator, and minister to Russia and to Great Britain (see picture, p. 268). As

Secretary of State under Monroe, he assisted in solving some of the new problems and in framing the Monroe doctrine, which we shall study later as one of the great documents that has affected the history of the Western Hemisphere.

Like his father, Adams lacked the faculty of making friends, but the biographer of the younger Adams could say: "He never knowingly did wrong, nor ever attempted to persuade himself that wrong was right."

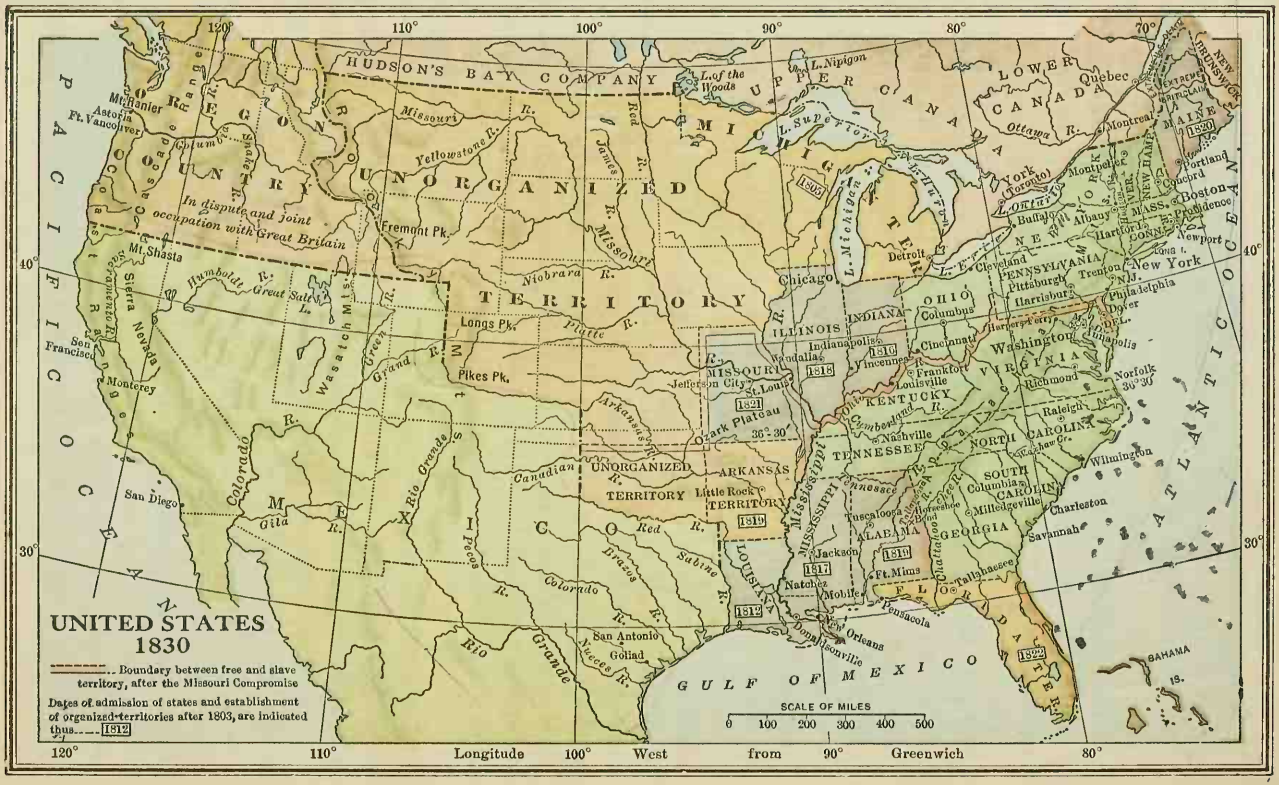
Tariff for protection.—The embargo and the War of 1812 had interfered with American commerce on the ocean. This interference developed two needs: (1) a need of things that could not be brought from abroad, and (2) the necessity of a new field for investing money to take the place of commerce on the sea. Extension of manufactures met both needs. New England was becoming a manufacturing section. Cotton, glass, nail, and pottery factories extended as far west as Pittsburgh.

After the close of the War of 1812, goods were brought from Europe in such quantities, and at prices so low, that many factories had to close. Before this, the chief object of a tariff had been to collect duties in order to get money for paying the expenses of government. A new tariff act now raised duties high enough to shut out many foreign articles and thus afforded greater protection to American manufactures. This aid gave new prosperity to some of our factories.

In the administration of John Quincy Adams still another tariff was put in force which was called "The Tariff of Abominations" by its opponents, who said it favored special interests and helped one section of the country at the expense of another.

The problem of Florida.—Spain still held Florida, which it had taken from Great Britain at the time of our Revolutionary War. There was danger of foreign war as long as Spain remained in possession of Florida, because outlaws and warring Indians, when pursued, would retreat there.

Andrew Jackson went boldly into Florida with his soldiers (1818), conquered the Sem'inole Indians, and hanged two


UNITED STATES
1830
Boundary between free and slave territory, after the Missouri Compromise
Dates of admission of states and establishment of organized territories after 1803, are indicated thus 1812
SCALE OF MILES
0 100 200 300 400 500
Longitude West from Greenwich
120° 110° 100° 90° 80° 70°
40° 30°
PACIFIC OCEAN
ATLANTIC OCEAN
GULF OF MEXICO
HUDSON'S BAY COMPANY
UPPER CANADA
LOWER CANADA
MICHIGAN TERR.
OREGON COUNTRY
UNORGANIZED TERRITORY
MEXICO
ILLINOIS
INDIANA
OHIO
KENTUCKY
TENNESSEE
MISSOURI
ARKANSAS TERRITORY
LOUISIANA
ALABAMA
MISSISSIPPI
GEORGIA
FLORIDA TERR.
SOUTH CAROLINA
NORTH CAROLINA
VIRGINIA
PENNSYLVANIA
NEW YORK
MAINE
NEW HAMP.
MASS.
CONN.
VER.
NEW JERSEY
DEL.
MD.
N.J.
Mt. Ranier
Astoria
Ft. Vancouver
Mt. Shasta
Sierra Nevada
San Francisco
Monterey
San Diego
Fremont Pk.
Longs Pk.
Pikes Pk.
Great Salt L.
Wasatch Mts.
Missouri R.
Yellowstone R.
Niobrara R.
Platte R.
Red R.
Arkansas R.
Canadian R.
Rio Grande
Colorado R.
Gila R.
Pecos R.
Brazos R.
Sabine R.
Nueces R.
Red R.
Ozark Plateau
36° 30′
Jefferson City
St. Louis
Vandalia
Indianapolis
Vincennes
Columbus
Cincinnati
Frankfort
Louisville
Nashville
Little Rock
Jackson
Natchez
Mobile
Ft. Mims
Pensacola
New Orleans
Donaldsonville
Tuscaloosa
Milledgeville
Tallahassee
Savannah
Charleston
Wilmington
Raleigh
Norfolk
Richmond
Washington
Dover
Philadelphia
Trenton
Harrisburg
Pittsburgh
Cleveland
Buffalo
Albany
Hartford
Boston
Providence
Newport
Portland
Concord
Montreal
Quebec
Ottawa R.
Detroit
Chicago
L. of the Woods
L. Nipigon
L. Superior
L. Michigan
L. Huron
L. Erie
L. Ontario
Mississippi R.
Tennessee R.
Chattahoochee R.
Cumberland R.
Ohio R.
Wabash R.
Kansas R.
Red R.
Sabine R.
Brazos R.
Colorado R.
Nueces R.
Rio Grande
Sacramento R.
Humboldt R.
Green R.
Grand R.
Columbia R.
Snake R.
Cascade Range
Coast Range
In dispute and joint occupation with Great Britain
BAHAMA IS.
1805
1810
1818
1821
1819
1817
1812
1820
1822

British subjects accused of inciting them to war. At first it seemed as if both Great Britain and Spain would declare war on the United States. Fortunately, the Napoleonic struggle had made the whole world weary of war, and Europe was not then safe from an uprising of the common people, who had borne most of the misery of the conflict.

The United States finally solved the Florida problem (1819) by agreeing to give Spain $5,000,000 for the entire territory, a cost of about eleven cents an acre. By the terms of the treaty, the United States also accepted the southwestern boundary shown on the map facing this page, and thus agreed not to claim any land bordering on the Gulf of Mexico to the west of the mouth of the Sabine (sȧ-bēn′) River, which now divides Louisiana from Texas. It was not then known that under the Louisiana Purchase the United States had a good claim to Texas. In addition to Texas, Spain still owned all the other land west of the Louisiana Purchase except the Oregon country, which (by treaty with Great Britain in 1818) was held jointly by the United States and Great Britain.

How Napoleon helped to change South American history.— The United States promptly ratified the treaty for the purchase of Florida (1819), but Spain delayed accepting it for nearly two years. To understand the reason for this, it is necessary to know that the Napoleonic War led to the independence of most of South America. When Napoleon put his brother on the Spanish throne (1808), the South American colonies would not recognize the authority of the usurper. After the Spanish king was restored (1814), he tried to rule South America in the same tyrannical way as before. But the people had had a taste of freedom and they fought the tyrant rather than yield. Thus the South American Spanish colonies, like the thirteen North American English colonies, had a bloody revolution to secure independence.

Spain's delay in ratifying the treaty for the sale of Florida, was in order to keep the United States from recognizing the

independence of the Spanish colonies in South America. During this time the United States remained neutral. After Spain ratified the treaty, the United States recognized the independence of the South American republics.

The Holy Alliance.—After the overthrow of Napoleon, a league was formed by the monarchs of Continental Europe, under the leadership of Russia, Austria, and Prussia. Its object was to promote Christian brotherhood and to put an end to war; it is usually known as the Holy Alliance.

Unfortunately the wars which this league stopped were those of democracy against autocracy. The idea controlling the league was thus expressed: "The first need of society is to be maintained by strong authority and not to govern itself." In plain language, the rulers in the Holy Alliance tried to make the world safe for autocracy. When the Spanish king was compelled by his people to swear to support a Spanish constitution, the league sent French soldiers into Spain to restore him to autocratic power. Austrian soldiers suppressed a movement for more liberty in Italy. It seemed as if the world would lose the liberties for which it had recently fought.

Danger to the New World.—Spain was too weak to suppress the rebellion in South America, and asked the Holy Alliance to stop it, although Great Britain declared that she would oppose such an attempt.

Russia had secured a foothold in Alaska, and there were reasons for thinking that the Czar intended to extend Russian influence down the western coast of America.

American statesmen studied how to ward off both these dangers.

The British prime minister proposed that Great Britain and the United States should join in a declaration (1) against the use of force by a European power to compel the Spanish American colonies to obey Spain, and (2) against the attempt of a European power to get possession of them by cession or by conquest. Great Britain was interested because the independence of the

CHURCH AND HOUSES IN SITKA, ALASKA
Recent photograph showing Russian type of architecture.

Spanish American colonies meant that she would no longer be shut out of their trade. But President Monroe, on the advice of John Quincy Adams (p. 274), decided that our protest should be made alone, and should be a stronger and more general protest against interference by European powers in the control of America.

The Monroe Doctrine.— President Monroe, with the assistance of Adams, prepared a message to Congress (1823), stating what has since been called the Monroe Doctrine. Historians rank it among America's twenty most important events (Appendix, p. xxiv) because it has caused European nations to hesitate before meddling in American affairs. The Monroe Doctrine emphasized these three points in regard to the policy of the United States:

I. We shall not interfere with European powers "in matters relating to themselves."

II. European governments must not extend "their system to any portion of this hemisphere."

III. European powers must not interfere with the government of American colonies that have declared their independence.

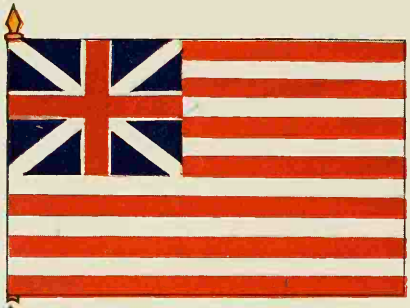
The Monroe Doctrine was not a law. It was merely a rule of action on which the United States declared it would insist. This meant war against any foreign nation that broke the rule. Twice, as we shall see in later chapters (pp. 433, 490), the United States has come near going to war in upholding the Monroe Doctrine. It has up to this time served its purpose well.

Two consequences of the Monroe Doctrine soon followed. (1) The revolting Spanish American colonies kept their freedom. (2) Russia made a treaty with Great Britain (1825), agreeing to 54° 40′ north latitude as the southern boundary of the Russian territory of Alaska.

The problem of slavery.—Slavery was becoming more and more a troublesome question. For some time after Englishmen settled in America, slavery was considered right and natural in both the North and the South. Slavery was gradually given up in the North because it proved unprofitable in competition with free labor.

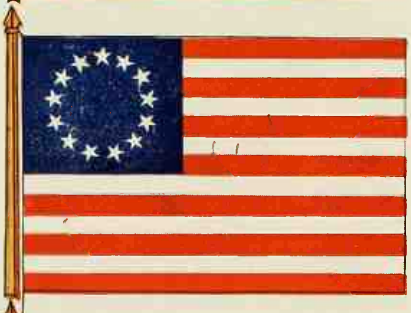
Before the invention of the cotton gin (which is discussed in a later chapter) and the world-wide demand for cotton, it seemed as if slavery would soon pass away in the South also. Washington and Jefferson disliked the whole system of slavery and would have been glad to see it come to an end. But when the world found it could use cotton for clothing, cotton lands became valuable if men could be found to work them. Since free laborers would not go where they would be ranked with slaves, the South came to think that its very existence depended on slavery. The feeling in the North against slavery was meanwhile increasing and threatened future trouble.

Free territory and slave territory.—The Ordinance of 1787 (p. 217) prohibited slavery in the territory west of Pennsylvania, north of the Ohio River, and as far west as the Mississippi, but not beyond, for that country did not then belong to the United States.



Flag of the Thirteen Colonies

Hoisted December 3, 1775, over the first Navy built by Congress; also adopted by General Washington, January 2, 1776, as the flag of the Continental Army. This was before the Declaration of Independence. The union shows the British flag of that time.



First Stars and Stripes

Adopted by act of Congress, June 14, 1777. The Act did not specify the arrangement of the stars. In Army flags from 1777 to 1794 the stars were usually placed in a circle; but in Navy flags it was customary to arrange them in five rows consisting respectively of three, two, three, two, and three stars.

Flag of Fifteen Stars and Fifteen Stripes

Adopted by act of Congress, approved by President Washington January 13, 1794, when the admission of Vermont and Kentucky had made the number of states fifteen. This remained the national flag until 1818, notwithstanding the admission of other states.

Flag of Thirteen Stripes and One Star for Each State

Adopted by act of Congress, April 4, 1818. Since that time a star for each new state has been added on July 4 following its admission.

Evolution of the Flag

Increasing numbers of immigrants had come to the United States after the War of 1812. A steady stream of settlers poured into the West, and numbers crossed the Mississippi. By 1818 Missouri had enough inhabitants to apply to the Union for admission as a state. This application caused a dispute between the North and the South.

The balance of states.—Southern statesmen feared that if the North became sufficiently powerful it would cripple the South by restricting slavery or by freeing all the slaves. The North had more population, and therefore more members in the national House of Representatives. No law, however, could be passed without the approval of the Senate. Since each state had two senators, no matter how small it was, the South saw that it could prevent laws hostile to slavery if it could secure the admission into the Union of as many slave states as there were free states.

Of the sixteen states that entered the Union before 1800 (p. 237), eight were slaveholding, namely, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Kentucky, and Tennessee; the other eight were free soil. Between 1800 and 1820 there were admitted to the Union three northern free states and three southern slave states: Ohio (1803), Louisiana (1812), Indiana (1816), Mississippi (1817), Illinois (1818), Alabama (1819). There were thus at the end of 1819 twenty-two states in the Union, eleven free and eleven slave states. The next two applications for statehood came from Missouri and Maine.

The Missouri Compromise (1820).—Maine, which had been a part of Massachusetts since 1691, received permission from Massachusetts to apply for admission as a separate state. The House of Representatives voted to admit Maine, but the Senate tacked to this bill an amendment clause providing that Missouri should also be admitted as a slave state. If the Ohio River had continued to flow west, most of Missouri would have been north of that stream. The northern people therefore thought that Missouri should be a free state, but the South realized that it would be outvoted in the Senate if this should happen. Finally

a compromise was arranged which (1) admitted Maine as a free state, (2) agreed that Missouri should be a slave state, and (3) declared that slavery should be forever prohibited in the rest of the Louisiana Purchase lying north of the parallel of 36° 30′ north latitude—the southern boundary of Missouri. These three provisions are called the Missouri Compromise, which was adopted through the efforts of Henry Clay and other statesmen. People now hoped that the question of slave territory was settled.

Decline of national feeling.—After the War of 1812 the country seemed united. There was an outburst of national feeling as opposed to sectional feeling. But this national feeling began to decline before the end of Monroe's second administration. Sectional feeling gradually increased until it resulted in the Civil War, more than a generation later.

The trouble was that different sections of the country had conflicting interests. In the South the feeling in favor of slavery was growing. The North was becoming more opposed to slavery. The West and North wanted roads and canals built at national expense. The South thought this policy was unconstitutional.

A tariff bill that helped one section seemed to harm another. New England wanted free wool for its woolen mills and a high tariff on manufactured articles. The wool-growing states desired a duty on wool. The South had favored a tariff when it hoped to develop manufacturing. When it found that the slaves could not compete with free white labor in the factory, it objected to being taxed to support New England factories. South Carolina was even willing to fight, to resist the collection of tariff duties.

Summary of Points of Emphasis for Review.—(1) Where much of the attention of the country had been turned between 1793 and 1815, (2) the right-about face, (3) the American System and its object, (4) James Monroe, (5) John Quincy Adams, (6) how two needs developed, (7) what met both needs, (8) reasons for a tariff for protection, (9) problem of Florida, how it was settled, (10) effect of Napoleon's putting his brother on the Spanish throne, (11) the Holy Alliance, its object, its danger to the New World, (12) Monroe Doctrine, (13) difference in feeling of the North and

the South toward slavery, (14) free territory and slave territory, (15) the balance of states, (16) the Missouri Compromise, (17) decline of national feeling due to difference of opinion about (a) slavery, (b) building of roads and canals, (c) the tariff.

Activities.—In a hundred words describe the change that came to the United States after the end of the War of 1812.

In fifty words, describe the American System.

In twenty-five words give the new purpose of a tariff.

Talk for three minutes on the Monroe Doctrine. See Hart, *American History Told by Contemporaries*, III., 494–498; or James, *Readings in American History*, 331–333.

Explain the connection between the Holy Alliance and the Monroe Doctrine.

What difference might there be in the Western Hemisphere to-day if it had not been for the Monroe Doctrine?

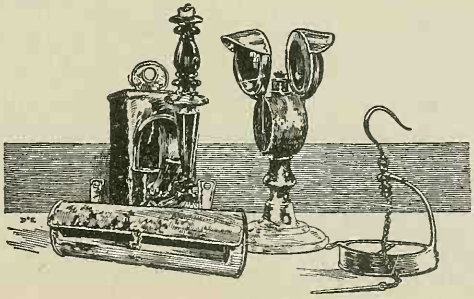
Why did a move to make Maine a state start trouble?

Draw a map of the United States in 1830 and (a) outline its boundaries in red, (b) show all the states then in the Union, (c) indicate slave states by diagonal lines.

Imagine yourself a southern plantation owner and tell why you are opposed to a tariff on manufactures. See "The Protective Tariff and the South," in James, *Readings in American History*, 334–341.

References for Teachers.—Turner, *Rise of the New West*, IX.–XIX.; Johnson, *Union and Democracy*, XV., XVI., XVIII.; Babcock, *Rise of Am. Nationality*, XIV., XVII.; Fish, *Development of Am. Nationality*, 161–182; Clark, *Hist. of Manufactures in the U. S.*, 263–314; Walker, *Making of the Nation*, 250–273; Sparks, *Men Who Made the Nation*, 255–281; Coman, *Industrial Hist. of the U. S.*, 191–197.

For Pupils.—Elson, *Side Lights on Am. Hist.*, 148–192; Coffin, *Building of the Nation*, 232–246; Fiske-Irving, *Washington and his Country*, 535–542; Wright, *Children's Stories of Am. Progress*, 145–158; Hart, *Source Book of Am. Hist.*, 234–237; Foote and Skinner, *Makers and Defenders of Am.*, 178–189.



Old-Fashioned Oil Lamps, Candlestick, and Holders for Candles and Candle Ends

CHAPTER XIX

LIFE AND PROGRESS, 1789 TO 1829

What a Rip Van Winkle might have noticed.—If a Rip Van Winkle, familiar with all the country east of the Mississippi, had gone to sleep just before Washington was inaugurated in 1789 and had awakened in Pittsburgh forty years later at the end of the administration of John Quincy Adams (1829), what changes would he have especially noticed? After he had recovered from his surprise at the number of people in Pittsburgh, he might wonder at large boats on the Ohio River which had the magic power of moving themselves. They were carrying men, horses, cattle, pigs, and household goods. "When I went to sleep," he might say, "George Washington and King George were using the means of transportation that were common in the time of Homer or of Alexander the Great. Now, I see a wonderful new power which I do not understand." We shall read about the steamboat later in this chapter.

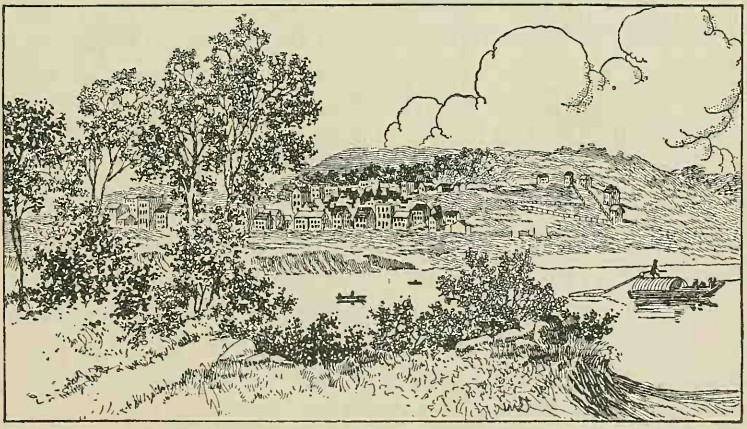
If he were tempted to embark on one of these steamboats and to pass down the Ohio, continuing his journey to the Mississippi, he would be astonished at the farms, villages, and cities along the river, and he might ask: "Who planted these new settlements? Before I went to sleep, Daniel Boone had been followed by a few thousands into Kentucky, James Robertson had taken a band into Tennessee and founded Nashville, and a few settlers were going into the Ohio country; but I never dreamed that people would swarm west like this. Before my nap, people thought it would be a thousand years before our settlements reached the Mississippi. Now, a passenger tells me that in these forty years Kentucky, Tennessee, Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Alabama, and Mississippi have become states, like the thirteen I knew, and that not only do our states form a solid block from the

Atlantic to the Mississippi, but two states, Louisiana and Missouri, have been organized west of the Mississippi!"

His fellow passenger might add: "We doubled the size of the United States while you were sleeping, and we now own the country west of the Mississippi to the Rocky Mountains. We have broken the world's record for rushing west and making new settlements."

If the journey were continued down the Mississippi, our traveler might exclaim in surprise that some fields seemed to be covered with snow; and his companion might reply: "When you went to sleep, a little cotton was raised in the lowlands of South Carolina and Georgia, but now the fields of the southern states are white with millions of pounds of cotton, west to the Mississippi; and also south to the Gulf of Mexico, for we bought Florida while you were asleep."

The westward movement.—Our imaginary Rip Van Winkle would be right in showing the keenest interest in the westward movement of the population, for this is one of the greatest events in our history. After the Louisiana Purchase (1803) had given to the United States undisputed possession of the great thoroughfare of the Mississippi River, increasing numbers went west.



CINCINNATI IN 1810. Redrawn from an old print.

Pioneers then knew that those living along any of the streams flowing into that great river could ship their crops to New Orleans, and thence to the markets of the world, without trouble from Spain.

Whenever there were hard times in the older part of the country, men went west in larger numbers to try to improve their condition. The embargo of 1807 prostrated ocean commerce and sent west a fresh stream of families. The British blockade of our Atlantic coast in the latter part of the War of 1812 had a similar effect. At all times, those who felt that progress in the East was too slow and that the fertile soil of the West would give them a better chance in life, joined in this great westward movement.

Increased immigration.—During the time that we were learning how to make our Constitution and laying the foundation of our government, comparatively few immigrants came to our shores. While the European countries were busy fighting, they needed all their available men for service in their armies and navies; and from the close of our Revolution in 1783 to the downfall of Napoleon at Waterloo in 1815, there had been almost constant war in Europe. Large numbers of soldiers and sailors who were mustered out of service in 1815 came to the United States. Others came to better their condition and to avoid the high taxes levied to pay the expenses of war. Still others chose the United States because they feared that Europe would soon be plunged in war again, and they wished to escape its horrors.

As these immigrants journeyed to the West, they were amazed to see how well the farmers lived. A man from Yorkshire, England, on his way to Ohio with his family, said: "This be a queer country, for I have asked the laboring folks all along the road how many meals they eat in a day, and they all said three and sometimes four, if they wanted them. We have but two at home, and they are scanty enough. And only think, sir, many of these people asked me to eat and drink with them. We can't do so in Yorkshire, sir, for we have not enough for ourselves." A

man who passed through Cincinnati in 1808 said that he could buy either a turkey or a goose for sixteen cents.

The public lands.—The real reason for this great westward movement of population was the vast extent of fertile land offered by the United States at a low price to settlers. This rich land, which "needed only to be tickled with the plow to laugh in wheat and corn," was a natural advantage which no other country in the world possessed in equal degree. Patriotic orators have sometimes forgotten this fact, and have talked as if these settlers would have accomplished as much if they had migrated to the middle of a great desert. They had their choice of the best timbered lands, or of the prairies of Illinois where for thousands of years the grass had grown and decayed, forming a rich black soil several feet thick. On the prairies there were no trees to be cut and no stumps to be removed.

This land had for some time been sold by the United States at $2 an acre. In 1820 Congress voted to sell eighty-acre tracts for $100. An average sale of a million acres a year at once resulted from this low price. There were soon complaints that it would take five hundred years to dispose of the public lands at this slow rate of sale. Impatient people forgot that public lands would serve to allay discontent as long as they lasted, because they would hold out to the poor and the dissatisfied the hope of bettering their condition.

Modes of travel to the West.—During the first quarter of the nineteenth century, home seekers usually traveled westward in covered wagons that carried their families and household goods. One of the popular western roads led from Philadelphia to Pittsburgh, where a boat could be taken on the Ohio. Even in the late fall of one year (1811), as many as two hundred and thirty wagons, with an average of eight people to each wagon, passed along this road in one month on their way to Ohio. The snows of winter did not stop the westward march. Farmers in central New York said there was a constant procession of sleighs taking people west (1814). Not all could have wagons or sleighs.

PIONEERS GOING WEST

The covered wagon was their home during the long journey.

Poor men with large families often set out on foot, taking their scanty possessions in a wheelbarrow. Sometimes a man who could not get a cart or a wheelbarrow would carry what he could on his back.

A girl's journey to Ohio.—A journal written by Margaret Dwight, a girl in her teens, gives an account of her trip from Connecticut to Ohio. When Connecticut ceded to Congress its claim to western lands, it reserved the ownership (but not the government) of a strip called the Western Reserve, in northern Ohio. Margaret left New Haven in 1810, with a deacon and his family, and reached this part of Ohio after traveling forty-four days in a wagon drawn by a team of horses. Their route lay through New Jersey and Pennsylvania. The greatest distance covered in one day was about what a slow accommodation train would now travel in one hour. Once the weather was so bad that they made only eight miles in three days. The girl chafed at the added delay, because the deacon would not travel on Sundays and because he wanted her to walk so much, often nine miles a day in rain, to save the horses. The blood of pious presidents of Yale and Princeton flowed in her veins, but she declared: "If I am caught with a deacon of any name again, I shall deserve to suffer."

This girl gave a vivid account of the discomforts of such a trip. She says that one night they stopped in a log house furnished

with "two benches to sit on, two bottomless chairs, and a floor containing dirt enough to plant potatoes. I had rather have walked ten miles than stay, but the poor horses could not. We are going to sleep on the floor, all in a room together." She tells of their trouble in passing streams, and how a wagoner and his four horses were drowned in crossing a creek. Their party was sometimes kept awake all night by drunken, swearing teamsters. Raw pork was part of her food. "We have concluded the reason so few are willing to return from the western country is not that the country is so good, but because the journey is so bad," she says.

On crossing the Alleghenies she writes: "We are now at a tavern half a mile from the top of the Allegheny Mountain—this mountain is fourteen miles over. . . . After a comfortable night's rest, we set out on foot to reach the height of the mountain. We found the roads bad past description, worse than you can possibly imagine. Large stones and deep mud holes every step of the way. . . . Wagons without number every day go on. One went on containing forty people."

Her shoes were worn out when she finally reached the end of her journey and met her cousins in the Western Reserve.

Other routes of travel.—In addition to routes through New York along the Mohawk valley, and through central Pennsylvania to Pittsburgh, other roads could be taken to the West. In 1806 the national government began to construct the most popular of these. This was known as the Cumberland Road, because it led west from Cumberland, the head of navigation on

THE CUMBERLAND ROAD

the Potomac. Since it was paved with stones and gravel, the work of building it was slow and expensive. Not until 1818 did it reach Wheeling, where travelers could take steamboats on the Ohio. Beyond Wheeling, it was more often known as the National Road, and it was extended west through Columbus, Ohio, and Indianapolis, to Vandalia, Illinois, where it stopped because of the development of railroads. It cost Congress more than four million dollars, but it gave more than that worth of service before the railroads came. It was a great thoroughfare for travelers and freight, to and from the West.

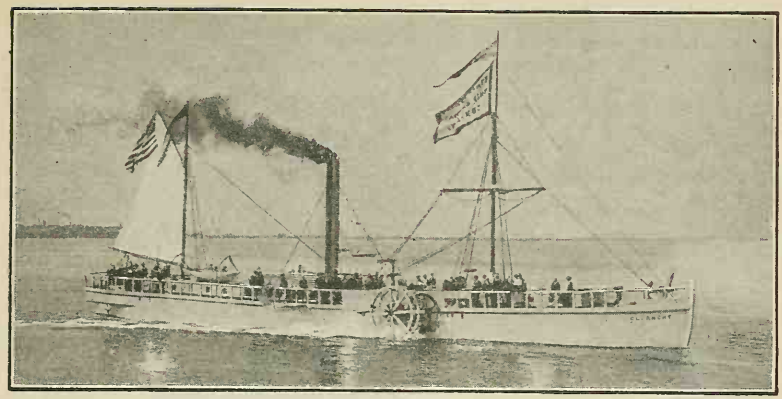
Another route of travel led from southwestern Virginia through Cumberland Gap into Kentucky; and still another, farther south, around the southern end of the Appalachians to the western Gulf states.

The steamboat. — A number of inventors had tried to use the steam engine for propelling boats. John Fitch (1743–1798), born on a Connecticut farm, worked as a clockmaker. Then he repaired guns for American soldiers in the Revolution. He invented a steamboat that made a trip on the Delaware River (1787) while the Constitutional Convention was in session (p. 220). His improved steamboat carried passengers one summer (1790) on the Delaware, but the business did not pay. In France, New York, and Kentucky he tried in vain to secure capital for similar enterprises. One day his failures and lack of money made him lose heart and he took poison.

Robert Fulton (1765–1815), a Pennsylvanian, made the steamboat a commercial success. In 1807 his steamboat, the *Clermont*, made the trip up the Hudson from New York to Albany, 150 miles, in thirty-two hours. In 1811 the first steamboat on the Ohio went from Pittsburgh to New Orleans.

The use of the steamboat was rapidly extended to all navigable streams, and transportation by water became easy. In 1819 the steamship *Savannah*, assisted by her sails, crossed the Atlantic.

Canals. — As water alone seemed able to furnish satisfactory transportation, Governor DeWitt Clinton of New York thought



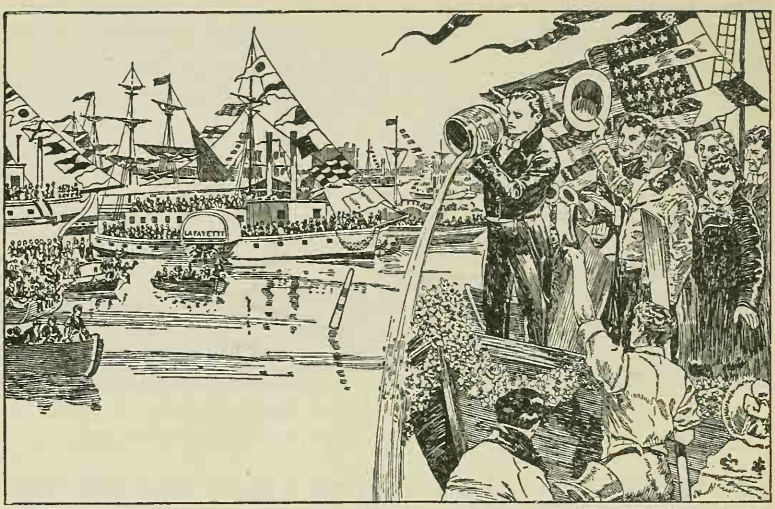
THE CLERMONT

From a photograph of the replica built for the Hudson Fulton Celebration, 1909.

that he might dig the channel for an artificial river from Lake Erie to the Hudson. People assured him that it was a crazy undertaking and could not possibly succeed. He paid no attention to them, but persuaded the New York legislature to vote the necessary money, and started in 1817 to dig a canal 352 miles long. Many who realized how little earth one shovel could hold thought that it would take more than a hundred years to dig the canal. The digging, however, required only eight years and the canal was ready for use in 1825.

So important was its completion considered, that it was decided to notify the city of New York when the first boat entered the canal from Lake Erie. As there was no telegraph, cannon were arranged within hearing distance of each other along the canal and the Hudson River. In an hour and twenty minutes New York knew that this boat had actually started from Buffalo. Her citizens were intensely interested, but they did not then know how much the canal would aid in the expansion of her commerce and the development of the West.

Now at last there was a through route by water from the Great Lakes to the Atlantic Ocean. Much produce that had been carried down the Mississippi to New Orleans now came to



CELEBRATION, IN NEW YORK HARBOR, OF THE COMPLETION OF THE ERIE CANAL
Governor Clinton, in the foreground, is pouring into the harbor a keg of water brought from Lake Erie.

New York through the new canal. The lower cost of transportation was an event more important than the War of 1812 to the vast adjacent region. Farmers who had been selling their wheat for thirty cents a bushel now received a dollar. After the opening of the canal, the freight rate from Buffalo to New York dropped from $100 a ton to $15.

Comfortable packet boats with sleeping berths and dining rooms carried throngs of passengers through the canal at a speed of four miles an hour. All canal boats were then drawn by horses, in charge of a driver who usually walked behind them on the towpath. Not until ninety years later was the canal enlarged for the use of boats propelled by motors or steam engines.

When Pennsylvania saw how much the Erie Canal was adding to the wealth of New York, it began to construct a canal from Philadelphia to Pittsburgh. The Allegheny Mountains separated the Pennsylvania canal into two parts, with an interval of thirty-six miles between them. To connect the two parts of the canal there was a railroad for cars drawn by horses, and at each

end of it were stationary engines to haul the cars up inclined planes on the mountain side. The Erie Canal was fortunate in having no such obstruction to cross. The state of Ohio also built an important canal, connecting the Ohio with Lake Erie (1832). This Ohio canal soon sent hundreds of thousands of bushels of wheat and millions of barrel staves to Lake Erie, and thence they went through the Erie Canal to New York. Wheat much farther east, but away from water transportation, was then worth less than in central Ohio.

Farming in the North.—For the first thirty years of the nineteenth century, by far the most important of all the industries of the country was the making of farms. People often think that a farm is ready made, but this was never the case in the United States. And when a farm is once made, it never stays made. Alice in Looking Glass Country might have been thinking of the farmer when she said, "To stay where you are, you must run like everything."

Wherever the forest grew, the first step in making a farm was either to cut down the trees or to girdle them so that they could not put forth leaves and shade the ground. Any one who has plowed where there were stumps and roots, or who has helped dig them out, knows what hard work is. Then, the house had to be built, of logs hewn flat on two sides. This, too, was hard work.

If the farm was on the prairie, such as the early settlers found in parts of Illinois and farther west, there were no trees to be cleared away, but it was very difficult to break up the ground through the dense growth of grass. The wood for building and fuel had to be brought from a distance, and the problem of getting water was often difficult. Fencing the land to keep animals away from the crops required much labor. Nearly all the work on the farm, except plowing and harrowing, continued to be done by hand. The corn was dropped, covered, hoed, and shelled by hand. Wheat was sown, cut, and threshed by hand. All the children, both boys and girls, helped in the farm work. The farmer usually worked from sunrise until dark.

The most important crops in the North were wheat and corn. Farmers who lived thirty-five miles away from the Ohio River complained that it often did not pay to raise corn or wheat to sell. If wheat brought fifty cents a bushel at the river, the farmer thirty-five miles away could not get more than twenty-five cents.

When the question of transportation from the interior seemed hopeless, some farmers devised a plan of making the crops carry themselves to market. They fed the corn and wheat to cattle and hogs and then drove them east, most frequently to Philadelphia or Baltimore. In some years Kentucky alone drove 100,000 hogs east. Fat cattle were driven from Ohio across the Alleghenies to Baltimore as early as 1805.

Before 1830 the steamboat was affording quick transportation to New Orleans for the foodstuffs of the Ohio valley. Cincinnati began to be called Porkopolis, because the hogs from the adjacent territory were taken there instead of to the East. Cincinnati converted them into fine bacon, hams, and pork and shipped them to New Orleans for consumption on the vast cotton plantations of the South. In 1830 more than 2,000,000 pounds of bacon, pork, and lard were taken down the river to New Orleans.

Old-Fashioned Four-Post Bed, with Patch Quilt, and Trundle-Bed

A boy's life on a farm.— We have an account of a boy's life on a pioneer farm in central New York at the time Margaret Dwight (p. 286) took her journey to northern Ohio. He says: "My first remembrance is of a log house about twenty feet square, in which we all lived, the big boys sleeping upstairs in the garret while the two youngest of us occupied a trundle-bed,

which in the daytime was shoved under the parental resting place." He mentions a loom, two spinning wheels, a huge fireplace, and a few eating and cooking utensils. The farm had a cow, a dog, a cat, and a team of horses. There were ten children in the family. One of the older boys felled the trees on twelve acres of a neighbor's land, cut them into logs twelve feet long, and piled up the brush, receiving a yoke of oxen for pay. The big boys "supplied the table with plenty of bear meat and venison, as well as partridges and ducks." The boys in winter wore moccasins made of raw deerskin, and in summer went barefoot.

The family was so large that the common custom of "putting out" some of the children was followed. One boy of this family, who when eight years old was bound out with a farmer, says: "At the age of nine years I regularly went to mill, sometimes a distance of fourteen miles. In winter I went to school, two and three quarters miles, besides cutting wood, assisting in milking, feeding the cattle, and doing other 'chores.' At twelve years of age I could reap and bind, plow, rake hay, mow a little, chop wood, shear sheep, pull flax, assist to build stone fences, sing psalms, and teach the children their letters." All the schooling that he ever had was nine months in a log schoolhouse.

Farming in the South; increasing hold of slavery.—In this period southern agriculture underwent a change which was the principal cause of our Civil War. In the last quarter of the eighteenth century, slavery was proving unprofitable, and its natural death seemed to be approaching. John Randolph, a noted Virginian, said the time was coming when masters would run away from their slaves and that the slaves would have to advertise them in order to catch them. But as we shall see in the next chapter, the invention of the cotton gin made cotton growing profitable, and this increased the demand for slaves. In 1791 only two million pounds of cotton were produced. Eighty million pounds were raised in 1807, and three quarters of this amount was sold abroad. Some Englishmen have even said that it was the wealth obtained from manufacturing cotton

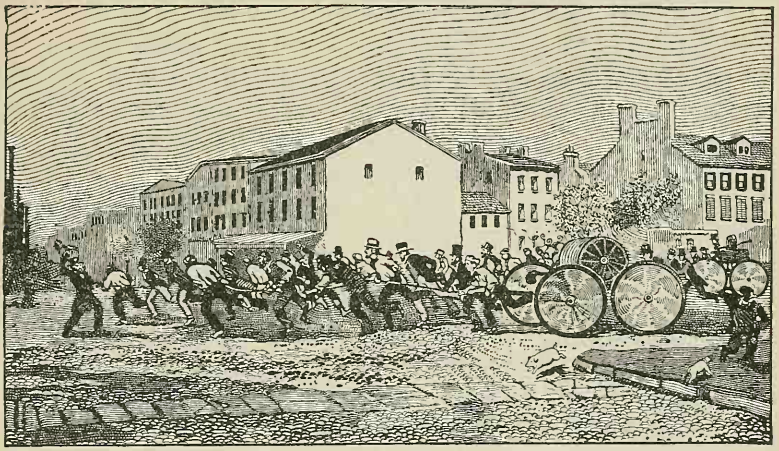
that carried England through the Napoleonic War. There was a market, usually at a large profit, for all the cotton that could be raised. Until 1803 tobacco was our most important export. It was then surpassed by cotton, which has ever since been used in increasing quantities for the clothing of the world.

Georgia and South Carolina had been the greatest cotton-producing States, but new cotton lands were eagerly sought and found in Alabama, Mississippi, and beyond the Mississippi River. Planters and their slaves left the exhausted and less fertile lands of the East and hurried to the Southwest. Since cotton was the most profitable crop, other kinds of farming were comparatively neglected.

The circle of investment in the cotton-producing lands was "making more cotton to buy more negroes to raise more cotton to buy more negroes." In one year 250,000 slaves were said to have been brought into Alabama and Mississippi from the older slave states. The increasing and profitable cultivation of cotton fastened slavery firmly on the South.

Social welfare.—Large cities like New York and Philadelphia found, a few years after the War of 1812, that paupers were increasing faster than population. Fifteen thousand people in New York, a city of 120,000, were living on charity. A society was formed to discover the reason for pauperism. The chief cause was found to be strong drink, the use of which was very common. Philadelphia reported that liquor was sold by the cent's worth to children five years old. Another cause of pauperism was neglect of the proper education of children. New York women filled one special school with girls under ten years of age, all the children of drunkards.

Imprisonment for debt had not ceased. In Boston, during 1820 and 1821, three thousand people were imprisoned for debt, nearly two thirds of them for an amount less than twenty dollars. One creditor dragged a woman to jail, away from her two small children, both of whom were under two years of age. The New York jails were crowded with debtors, all of whom would have



RUN TO A FIRE: HOW FIRE APPARATUS WAS DRAWN IN EARLY TIMES

starved had it not been for the Humane Society. The full story of these debtors and of their misery in the unspeakable jails is too sad to relate.

The westward movement was increased by numbers of the poorer people who feared imprisonment for debt. In the West the influence of the common people was strong enough to cause the new states, Indiana, for instance (1816), to frame constitutions that forbade imprisonment for debt. But many years passed before it was stopped in all the states.

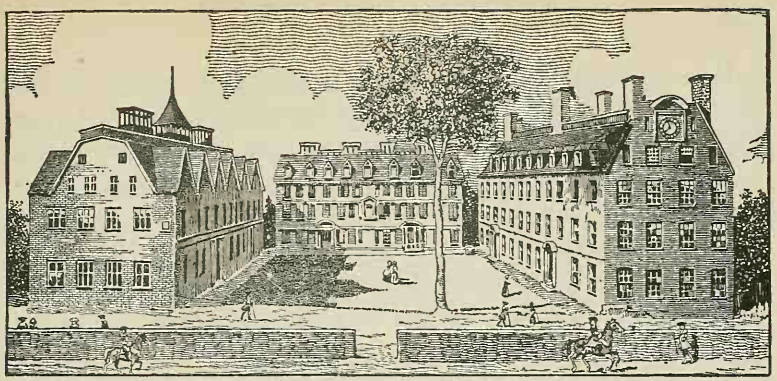
In the newly settled parts of the country, traveling preachers, revival services, and camp meetings, in spite of an excessive amount of excitement, caused many to lead better lives. A single Methodist clergyman, like Francis Asbury, sometimes called "the St. Francis of the West," might travel an average of 6000 miles a year over rough roads and through unbroken forests, preaching the Gospel in the plainest way to those who spent their lives in toil. The Baptists also were active, especially in the South. Other Protestant denominations and the Roman Catholic Church were also doing effective work. The efforts of all these religious bodies raised the life of the republic to a higher plane.

Education.—New England stood first in the number of its common schools. The South continued to depend mostly on private seminaries and tutors. Graduates of northern colleges, some of whom afterwards made their mark, often came South to

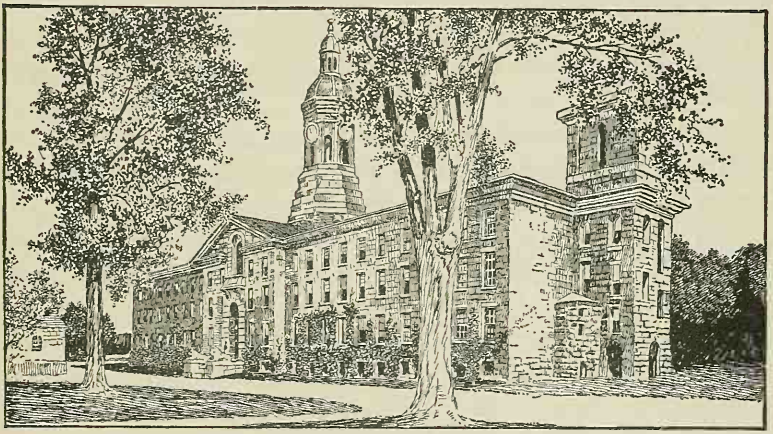
Boys' Sports—as Pictured in an Old Schoolbook

teach. We shall see that Eli Whitney, a graduate of Yale, invented the cotton gin while he was a teacher in Georgia. In Kentucky, Henry Clay's children had as tutor a Dartmouth graduate, Amos Kendall, who afterward became Postmaster-General of the United States.

The free public school did not become universal until a long time after this period. Many stoutly opposed the free-school system, because they thought it unjust to tax one man to pay for educating the children of another. As late as 1829, Illinois voted that no one should be taxed for schools unless he gave his written consent. It took a long time for men to realize that a person without education is more likely to be shiftless and dependent on his neighbors than one who has been well taught, and that such people are a constant source of danger to a democratic government. Much experience was necessary to teach men who were well off that they must educate the masses in order to protect themselves. A farmer pleading for free common schools said that he had found that education was a better protection than locks for his hen roost and smokehouse.



Old Buildings of Harvard College, in Massachusetts



Old Building of Princeton College, in New Jersey

Old Buildings of William and Mary College, in Virginia

It was customary in the majority of states throughout this period for children to pay tuition for elementary schooling unless they declared themselves paupers and thus exposed themselves to the contempt of both teachers and pupils. Although schools were founded for the children of the poor, the free school was never a success until all children entered its doors as equals, with no stigma of poverty. Pennsylvania workingmen realized this fact and demanded (1830) "a system of universal free and equal public education."

The Boston English High School (1821) was the first free public high school of modern times. Unlike the private academies, which charged tuition and usually fitted for college, this English High School taught neither Latin nor Greek. It was established to fit boys for "active life." The establishment of the public high school, the "people's college," was a landmark in the history of education. Its influence was to extend down to the common school and furnish its pupils with an attractive goal.

Girls were not yet given the same educational advantages as boys. Most of the higher schools for girls in this period were private seminaries. In 1828 the mayor of Boston closed its Girls' High School after a two years' trial, because it was too successful. He said that no "city could endure the expense of it."

Interest in college education was increasing. Some of the new states made provision for free universities. The constitution of Indiana demanded "a general system of free education, from elementary school to university." The new states felt better able to afford this, because the nation had granted them for educational purposes one thirty-sixth of all the public lands within their boundaries.

Literature.—A witty English clergyman asked in 1820: "In the four quarters of the globe, who reads an American book?" The answer could have been made at once: "The English are reading Washington Irving." Scott, the most popular British writer of the time, wrote (1809) of Irving's *Knickerbocker's History of New York*: "I have been employed in reading it

aloud to Mrs. Scott and two ladies who are our guests, and our sides have been absolutely sore with laughing." Irving's story of Rip Van Winkle's twenty years' sleep, caused by quaffing the liquor given him by Hendrick Hudson's ghostly crew, and his account of Ichabod Crane's courtship of a Knickerbocker maiden in *The Legend of Sleepy Hollow*, have been universal favorites on both sides of the Atlantic ever since they appeared (1819).

Before 1830, James Fenimore Cooper had written three of his five Leatherstocking Tales: *The Last of the Mohicans*, *The Pioneers*, and *The Prairie*. Europe as well as America was reading these as the prose *Odyssey* (p. 3) of the eighteenth-century American pioneer. Soon after they were issued, travelers found them being read in thirty-four places in Europe.

In 1821 William Cullen Bryant published his first volume of verse, containing eight poems, among them *Thanatopsis* and *To a Waterfowl*. Bryant received less than two dollars apiece for these poems, but to-day there are few cultivated Englishmen or Americans who would not be ashamed to admit that they had not read them.

Many of the stories, novels, and poems which Irving, Cooper, and Bryant wrote in this period still retain their popularity.

Summary of Points of Emphasis for Review.—(1) What a Rip Van Winkle who had slept during these forty years might have noticed, (2) how the Louisiana Purchase helped the westward movement, (3) effect of hard times and of the War of 1812 on the westward movement, (4) increased immigration after the War of 1812, (5) what an English immigrant noticed on his way to the West, (6) the public lands and their sale, (7) modes of travel to the West, (8) journal of Margaret Dwight, (9) various routes of travel to the West, (10) the steamboat, (11) the canal, (12) farming in the North, (13) a boy's life on a farm, (14) farming in the South, increase of the cotton crop, (15) reasons for increased pauperism, (16) imprisonment for debt and its effect on the constitutions of new states, (17) influence of religion, (18) education, (19) literature.

Activities.—Write in one hundred words the changes that you might have noticed when you awoke, if you had been a Rip Van Winkle who had slept for forty years after Washington was inaugurated.

Put yourself in the place of Margaret Dwight (p. 286) and describe your

journey. Read Hart, *American History Told by Contemporaries*, III., 459–463, and James, *Readings in American History*, 304–312.

If you had been a merchant in the city of New York, or a western farmer, why would you have wanted the Erie Canal?

On a map show main routes of travel to the Mississippi River in 1826. Trace land routes in black, canals in red, rivers in blue.

Describe the life of a boy or girl on a northern farm.

Talk for three minutes on traveling preachers and camp meetings. Read Hart, *American History Told by Contemporaries*, III., 471–475.

Read at least two pages of prose and one poem written during this period and tell how you like them in comparison with work of the same kind written later.

References for Teachers.—Hart, *Am. Hist. Told by Contemporaries*, III., 509–523, 459–478; Coman, *Economic Beginnings of the Far West*, II., 3–66; Sparks, *The Expansion of the Am. People*, X., XIV., XX., XXIII.; Earle, *Stage Coach and Tavern Days; Home Life in Colonial Days*, 325–363; Turner, *The Rise of the New West*, 3–133, 286–298; Roosevelt, *The Winning of the West*, I., Chap. V.; Hulbert, *The Paths of Inland Commerce* (Chron. of Am.); Halleck, *Hist. of Am. Lit.*, 107–145; Margaret Dwight, *Journey to Ohio in 1810*.

For Pupils.—Elson, *Side Lights on Am. Hist.*, 80–95; Foote and Skinner, *Makers and Defenders of Am.*, 213–223; Hart, *How our Grandfathers Lived*, 47–76, 85–160, 317–371; Perry, *Four Am. Inventors*, 11–67; Coffin, *Building the Nation*, 231–242, 251–281; Bass, *Stories of Pioneer Life*, 54–136; Brooks, *Lem: A New England Village Boy* (fiction); Otis, *Hannah of Kentucky* (fiction).

Gothic Tower at Yale University, in Connecticut

CHAPTER XX

THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

Inventions and progress.—Within the hundred years following the Declaration of Independence, the world was to change more than during the preceding three thousand years.

The greatest discovery of all preceding ages was the use of fire. Monkeys, birds, and other animals have never learned how to use that. Without fire, the world could not have progressed from an age of stone to that of bronze, iron, and steel. Fire had to come before steel axes, saws, knives, harvesters, steam engines, railroads, and the science of chemistry. Men used fire from a very early time, but it was not until the eighteenth century that they learned how to use it in the production of steam power, and not until the nineteenth that they found out how to make fire easily, with a phosphorus match.

Before the middle of the eighteenth century there were only six discoveries or inventions of the first rank—the use of fire, alphabetical writing, Arabic numerals, the printing press, the mariner's compass, and the telescope. Since then, there have been enough to change the manner of life of the world.

We have seen that the methods of travel had remained the same for thousands of years before the nineteenth century. Land travel had been confined to walking, and riding on horseback or in a carriage. Homer speaks of "the smooth-haired horses and the rapid car." When Washington was inaugurated President, grain was carried to mill on horseback. If a stagecoach could then go twelve miles an hour on a short stretch of good road, people talked about flying. There had been no improvement in the ways of moving soldiers since Julius Cæsar's time. The Romans, when they ruled in Britain, had better roads than Americans had in George Washington's day.

No new principle of propelling a boat had been discovered since Homer's heroes sailed the Mediterranean Sea to fight the Trojans. Oars and sails were then used, and they continued to be used. The wind brought to these shores Columbus, the early colonists, and the British fleet that besieged Boston and blockaded our shores in the War of 1812. But now the use of steam in a way that seemed almost as strange as anything in the *Arabian Nights* was ushering in a new epoch.

Inventions that caused an industrial revolution.—Inventions made in the latter half of the eighteenth century changed the manner of life of the United States, both in the home and outside it. These inventions were four in number. The first two of them were the work of Englishmen; the third, of a Scotchman; the fourth came from the brain of an American.

The first invention, known as the "spinning jenny," gave a more rapid way of spinning thread or yarn. From the earliest times, human muscles had spun the fibers of wool and flax. Spinning was slow work, and one weaver could use up as much thread or yarn as five spinners could make.

This new invention in spinning put the spinners ahead of the weavers, and a second invention was necessary to speed up weaving. This came when Edmund Cartwright, an English clergyman, invented a power loom to weave threads or yarn into cloth.

The steam engine.—The power loom was at first run by an ox. Something was needed to move machinery faster than oxen, and it was found when the steam engine was perfected. This was the third invention required for the industrial revolution.

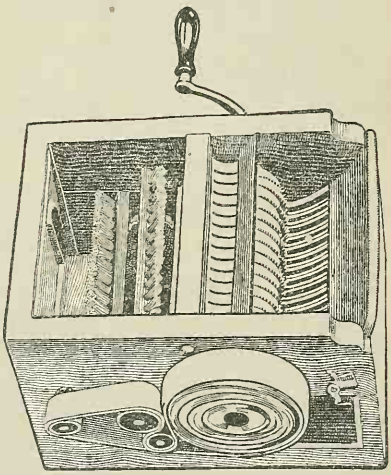
A steam toy had been made before the birth of Christ, but steam was not effectively harnessed until the Scotchman James Watt improved an engine which he patented in 1769. Before Watt, no engine was worked entirely by steam, but there was one which had its valves opened and shut by a boy at each stroke of the piston. Humphrey Potter, an English boy, has the honor of helping perfect this great invention. He had the weary job of

attending to the valves all day. He wanted some time to play, and so he worked with a system of strings and latches until he made a device that would open and close the valves while he played. Watt made many improvements in the steam engine.

This new use of steam has changed the story of human life. James Watt was rightly given a monument in Westminster Abbey as a "benefactor of the world." The use of the steam engine for propelling boats and hauling railroad trains is described in other chapters (pp. 288, 348).

The cotton gin.—A fourth invention was needed to furnish more raw material for the spinning machine and the loom, as well as to give the steam engine more to do. This new invention was the work of an American.

Eli Whitney (1765–1825), the inventor of the cotton gin, was born in Massachusetts. During the Revolution, he made nails by hand and taught school to earn money to attend college. For this reason he was nearly twenty-seven years old when he graduated from Yale College. He went to Georgia to teach, and found that cotton was too high-priced for clothing, because of the difficulty in separating the fiber from the seed. One person could seldom prepare for manufacture more than five pounds in one day. By a system of wires and teeth on a revolving cylinder, Whitney invented what is known as the cotton gin (1793). This could take the seeds out of several hundred pounds of cotton fiber in one day.

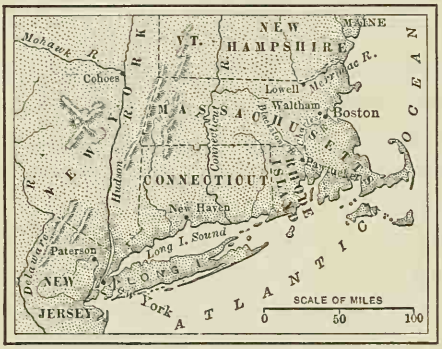


Model of the Cotton Gin Made by Whitney

The teeth on the cylinder pull the cotton fiber through slits too narrow to let the seeds through. The revolving brushes at the left remove the fiber from the teeth.

As a result of this invention, a large part of the world has been cheaply clothed, our most profitable export has been developed, and the history of the South has been changed (p. 293). So many stole Whitney's invention that he received no adequate reward from it. He went to New Haven, Connecticut, where he built a factory to make improved firearms, from which he earned a fortune. He has no monument in a famous place, like James Watt, but American history will keep alive the fame of Eli Whitney.

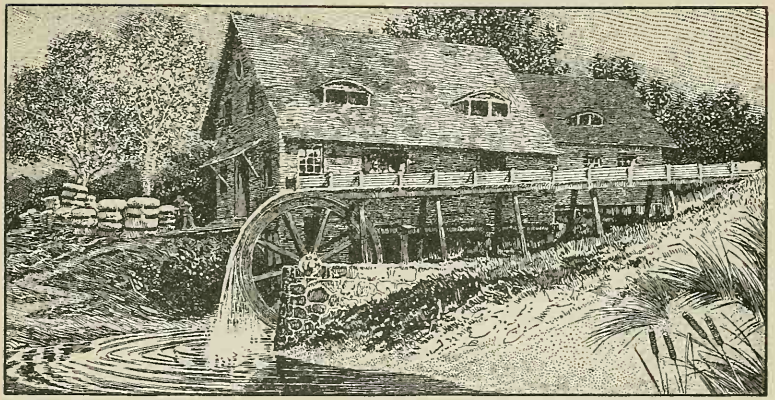
Slater's cotton mill.—Samuel Slater, an Englishman, spun cotton in an English mill, and learned how the machines were made and worked. When he heard that the first Congress of the United States under the new Constitution had passed a law to encourage manufactures, he decided to come to America. He wanted to bring the new inventions, but Great Britain wished to keep the profit from their use for British manufacturers, so a law was passed that none of the new machines should be exported and that no one should be allowed to take or send out of the kingdom any description of them.



Location of Early Factories

Slater determined to bring the new invention in his head. "The authorities can search my pockets and my baggage," he said, "but they cannot search my head."

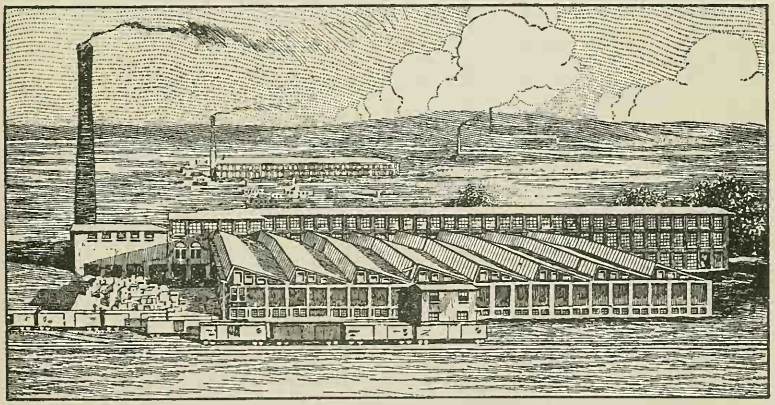
He went to Rhode Island, where he drew from memory the designs for all the complicated cotton-spinning machinery for a mill. This factory, the first one in the United States to install a complete set of the new power machinery, began work at Pawtucket, Rhode Island, early in Washington's first administration.



EARLY COTTON MILL IN RHODE ISLAND, OPERATED BY WATER POWER

Why Slater went to New England.—Steam engines were for some time expensive and hard to make because it was not easy to work with iron. At first steam boilers were made of wood, even for the steamboat, but they were not satisfactory.

Slater went to New England because it had water power to run his mill. Steam power was not widely used in our textile factories during the first half of the nineteenth century. In the early days of manufacturing, steam was chiefly used where there



MODERN COTTON MILL IN MASSACHUSETTS, OPERATED BY STEAM POWER

was no water power and where coal was abundant, as in Pennsylvania.

At Pawtuck'et, where Slater started his mill, there was plenty of power because the river there has a fall of fifty feet. The waters of the Blackstone River, on which Pawtucket is situated, drove more than a hundred mills and factories before the middle of the nineteenth century. The Merrimac River in New Hampshire and Massachusetts has been a famous stream for water power. Francis C. Lowell (lō'ĕl) brought spinning and weaving machinery under one roof for the the first time in his factory on the Charles River at Waltham, Massachusetts (1814).

Factories were also built in the Middle States on water-power sites, such as were found at Cohoes', New York, and Pat'erson, New Jersey. The location of these early factories is more important than that of many battles, because the life of the nation was changed by these new industries.

How workers were secured for the factories.—Spinning had been women's work in the home, and it was natural for employers to ask them to come to the mills. We know that Samuel Slater visited families and employed mothers and their children to work in his mill. In the manufacturing city of Lowell nine tenths of the factory hands were women and girls (1827). Most of them were young women of good families who were often working to get money for their own education or for that of a brother. The foremen of these factories often complained that the girls read books. These were usually good books, very often the Bible. Many of the operatives were school teachers. An agent who came from the West to look for school teachers was told that five hundred could be found working in the Lowell mills. In later times a large foreign immigration took the place of the native Americans, few of whom remained in the factories.

Evils in the new system.—Before this industrial revolution, members of the family worked together in the home. All had shared its common joys, troubles, and service. All had the training of the home, which has proved the greatest single power

in American life. The removal of the work from the fireside to the factory tended to break up home life. Trappers, fur traders, and sailors had hitherto been almost the only ones who left their homes in order to support them.

The industrial revolution stimulated the growth of factories which brought people together into towns and cities. The conditions of work in the early factory were very different from those on the farm. The hours of labor were long on the farm but its work was usually varied, and all were interested in doing things for each other, as well as for themselves. Factory hands were working for somebody else, often at the same unvaried job. Those who lived on the farm did much of their work in the open air, and they were not compelled to live in crowded tenements, as many of the toilers in the factory were. Doctors complained of the lack of ventilation, both in the cotton mills and in the crowded bedrooms.

The working day in the factory often began at five in the morning and lasted until seven at night. The deduction of time for eating left an average working day of about twelve and three quarters hours in the leading factories before 1847.

Child labor.—The factory used much child labor. The first who worked in Samuel Slater's mill were seven boys and two girls, all between the ages of seven and twelve. Most of his operatives were between ten and twelve years old. A Massachusetts cotton mill (1815) gave seventy-five cents a week to eight-year-old girls, eighty-three cents to ten-year-old boys, $1.25 to twelve-year-old girls, and $1.50 to thirteen-year-old boys,—but we must remember that food and shelter were very much cheaper than now. A fourteen-year-old girl weaver went to the factory at five in the morning and worked two and a half hours before breakfast. She did not finish her work until half past seven at night. Children were so tired with this long day that they often fell asleep at the supper table. Such children had little home training and less education. One girl who went into the factory at the age of ten to change bobbins wrote later:

"When I first
Learned to doff bobbins, I just thought it play.
But when you do the same thing twenty times—
A hundred times—a day, it is so dull."

The good side of the industrial revolution.—In some ways the home suffered from the industrial revolution, but there were many gains.

I. Larger amounts of the products of the soil were used. Farmers, traders, and laborers were benefited. In 1805 the factories used only 1000 bales of cotton. Ten years later 90,000 bales were needed to supply the demand.

II. The masses could obtain cheaper clothing. Cotton cloth cost forty cents a yard to weave by hand. In 1829 it was selling at eight and one half cents.

III. Machines driven by water or steam saved human muscles from doing much weary work and set them free for other things. A machine could often do the work of from a hundred to a thousand men.

IV. The industrial revolution brought many comforts. Things formerly rare became everyday conveniences. Calico was no longer too expensive for the poor. The laborer could change his leather garments for those made of wool, spun and woven in the factory. Wooden plates gave place to more sanitary crockery. The steam engine could print more books and pictures and bring the information of the world within reach.

V. The growth of manufactures and the use of steam brought people into closer contact with those living in other parts of the world and taught them that all could be of service to each other. New England manufacturers even sent skilled men to teach the Chinese how to prepare silk for American mills. The various manufacturing processes needed materials from all parts of the earth.

From the fireside to the factory.—After the Embargo Act (1807), home industries were transferred more rapidly to the factories. That act and the War of 1812 stopped the importation

of many things. More factories were built to supply the increased demand for their product. In remote districts homespun continued until recent times, but in the older parts of the country "the short period between 1810 and 1830 saw the center of gravity of textile manufactures shift from the fireside to the factory." This period started an industrial revolution which brought changes of the greatest importance to the people of the United States.

Summary of Points of Emphasis for Review.—(1) Inventions before the middle of the eighteenth century, (2) land and water travel before 1800, (3) four inventions that caused the industrial revolution, (4) Whitney's cotton gin and its result, (5) Slater's cotton mill, (6) why mills were first built in New England, (7) workers in the early factories, (8) evils in the factory system: (a) less home life, (b) crowded homes and tenements in cities, (c) long hours and impure air indoors, (d) child labor, (9) the good side of the industrial revolution: (a) demand for larger crops of food and cotton, (b) cheaper clothing, (c) machines doing more of the drudgery, (d) more comforts, more books and pictures, (e) improved ways of travel

MUSQUITO BARS.

200 PIECES Musquito Bars, just received and for sale by
JOHN STINSON & CO
June 27. 13-30 *East Front-st.*

FOURTH OF JULY.

CANTON FIRE CRACKERS for sale by the box at No. 3, Noble's row.
June 26. 12-20

50 BALES bleached and unbleached sheetings and shirtings, this day received and for sale by B. HAYDEN & Co.
May 29.

SPERM CANDLES.

43 BOXES sperm candles just received per s b Hibernia, and for sale by
June 6. SAMUEL LOWRY.

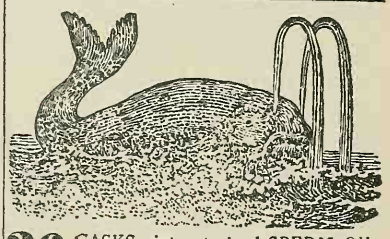
NEW ORLEANS SUGAR.

31 HHDS. received per steam boat Clinton, for sale by
JORDAN & ELLIS.
June 28. 14-26

ALABAMA COTTON.

85 BALES Prime Alabama Cotton, received per steam boat Pioneer, for sale by
IRWIN & WHITEMAN.
June 28, 1828. 14-28

36 CHESTS Fresh Y. H. Tea, of very superior quality, just received direct from Boston, and for sale by ALLISON OWEN,
No. 4, Com. Row.
June 28. 14-25



36 CASKS winter strained SPERM OIL, received this day and for sale by
HENRY CLARK,
No. 6, Lower Market-st.

ADVERTISEMENTS IN THE DAILY CINCINNATI GAZETTE, JULY 3, 1828

What do these advertisements show about life and trade in the Ohio valley after the industrial revolution and after the coming of the steamboat and the canal? What does the use of mosquito bar and sperm oil show about the life of the people?

made people know each other better and enabled those in all parts of the world to serve each other.

Activities.—Put in one list the six greatest inventions before the middle of the eighteenth century; in another list, the four that soon followed it.

Give some reasons for thinking that the hundred years after 1776 saw more change than the preceding three thousand years.

Give reasons why most of the cotton mills were located in New England rather than in the South or elsewhere.

Draw a map showing the principal manufacturing cities in the United States in 1830. Be prepared to tell why each was so located.

Write a letter such as ten-year-old children might have written to tell about their life in a New England factory of 1815.

Write a comparison of the life of the family during the period of home manufactures and after such work had been moved from the fireside to the factory.

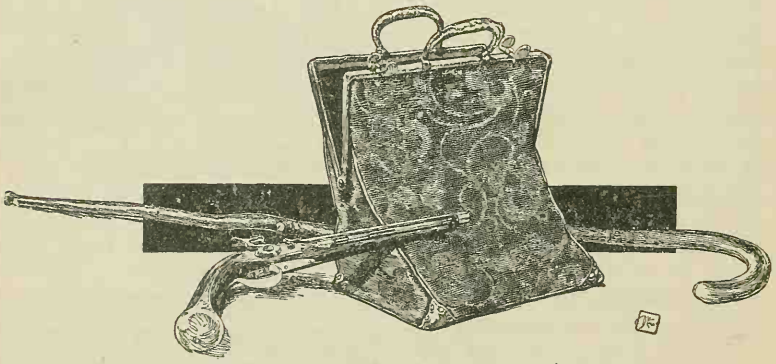
Make a chart showing the good and the evil results of the industrial revolution.

Compare a modern factory with an early one. How and why did improvements come?

In connection with child labor, read Elizabeth Barrett Browning's poem, *The Cry of the Children.*

References for Teachers.—Bogart, *Economic Hist. of the U. S.*, XI., XII.; Tryon, *Household Manufactures in the U. S.*, 123–163, 188–302; Clark, *Hist. of Manufactures in the U. S.*, 364–406; Wright, *Industrial Evolution of the U. S.*, 119–133; Abbott, *Women in Industry*, 35–147.

For Pupils.—Perry, *Four Am. Inventors*, 73–128; Bachman, *Great Inventors and Their Inventions*, 87–120; Mowry, *Am. Inventions and Inventors*, VII.; Stone and Fickett, *Days and Deeds a Hundred Years Ago*, 78–103; Foote and Skinner, *Makers and Defenders of Am.*, 205–212; Warren, *Stories from English Hist.*, 393–401.



Traveler's Equipment—Cane, Pistol, and Carpetbag

CHAPTER XXI

JACKSONIAN DEMOCRACY (1829-1841)

Andrew Jackson, the leader of the new democracy.—Andrew Jackson (1767–1845) has a secure place in history as the leader of a new type of democracy. Let us see how his training prepared him to be such a leader. He was born of Scotch-Irish stock in the frontier settlement of Waxhaw, on the dividing line between North and South Carolina. He went to a log-cabin school where he was taught only reading, writing, arithmetic, and a little geography and grammar. He never learned enough spelling or grammar to be able to write correct sentences. It has been said that even in an age of bad spellers he was remarkable for the number of different ways in which he could spell the same word on the same page.

After studying a little law, he joined a party of immigrants large enough to ward off Indian attack and went to Nashville, Tennessee, then a frontier town of perhaps two hundred inhabitants. He was appointed prosecuting attorney of a large district surrounding Nashville, and he tried to keep a frontier society in order. On his frequent trips he took his rifle for protection against the Indians, who in that district in so-called peaceful times were killing, on an average, one person every ten days. He swam his horse across streams, slept in the forest, attended court in remote places, and tried to see that justice was done. In the capacity of prosecutor, and later as a frontier judge, he learned to know all sorts of men and to be afraid of no one. He was six feet tall, and muscular. When a sheriff reported that a strong blacksmith would not submit to arrest, Jackson promptly went after the offender, brought him into court, and sentenced him. Jackson fought duels and earned the respect of the frontier by acts of bravery. In one of his many fights he

received a bullet in his shoulder, which caused him much pain in later years. Anæsthetics had not then been discovered, but Jackson finally called a surgeon and gripped a cane while the bullet was cut out.

How Jackson became widely known.—As major general of the militia of western Tennessee, Jackson learned how to control large bodies of men. A Baptist clergyman, writing from a North Carolina town to one of Jackson's former teachers at Waxhaw, tells how President Madison's courier sped with the news that gave Jackson the chance to become nationally and internationally known. "I have to inform you," says the clergyman's letter, "that just now the President's express rider, Bill Phillips, has tore through this little place without stopping. He came and went in a cloud of dust, his horse's tail and his own long hair streaming alike in the wind as they flew by. But as he passed the tavern stand where some were gathered, he swung his leather wallet by its straps above his head and shouted: 'Here's the Stuff! Wake up! War! War with England!! War!!!' " William Phillips, riding at the rate of ninety-five miles a day, galloped into Nashville nine days after leaving Washington. Major General Jackson assembled his militia and was angry because he could not strike a blow at once. Sometimes he had to use one half of his army to keep the other half from disbanding.

STATUE OF ANDREW JACKSON IN NEW ORLEANS

The Creek Indians helped England by taking Fort Mims in Alabama and butchering more than 400 settlers (1813). Jackson

started after the Creeks and almost exterminated them the next year in a battle at Horseshoe Bend, on the Tallapoosa River. This battle made Jackson famous in the South. His victory at New Orleans (p. 265) the next year made him known throughout the nation. His fame even crossed the Atlantic and caused Napoleon to study Jackson's generalship in that battle.

In 1824, Jackson received the highest number of electoral votes among four candidates for President, but as no one had a majority of the vote, the President was elected by the House of Representatives, which chose John Quincy Adams (p. 272). In 1828 Jackson easily defeated Adams for reëlection and became the seventh President of the United States. Jackson served for two terms (1829–1837). Let us try to learn about the democratic movement which he represented.

Jacksonian democracy.—Jacksonian democracy meant the rule of the plain common people. All the former Presidents were eastern men who had belonged to the educated upper class. Jackson had been trained only in the rough school of the frontier. Jacksonian democracy insisted on the worth of the common man and on his ability to share in the government. This feeling was strongest on the frontier, where every one tilled the soil and felt himself the equal of everybody else. When Jackson was judge, he sometimes waited on customers who came to a store kept by his wife's relatives. These customers liked to tell how Judge Jackson gave them generous pounds of tea and long yards of calico.

Jacksonian democracy liked to do things without ceremony. Common men were pleased with the way in which Jackson rushed into the Spanish territory of Florida without waiting for orders (p. 274), thus escaping long diplomatic conferences when action was needed at once. They admired the quickness with which he destroyed a Spanish fort that served as a base for Indian and negro raids into the United States, and they liked his frontier method of promptly executing two British subjects who had been accused of suggesting these raids. Diplomacy had failed to

get from France payment for our vessels destroyed by her during the Napoleonic War. After Jackson became President, he urged Congress to take the frontier short cut and seize enough French vessels to pay our claims. The French said that such an act would mean war, but they paid the claim. Jackson's rough-and-ready ways made him the hero of the great mass of the people.

Political equality.—Jacksonian democracy also meant political equality. In the thirteen original states, at the time of the ratification of the Constitution (1788), no one could vote unless he paid taxes or had a certain amount of property. The growth of the West made Jacksonian democracy possible. When Jackson was elected, there were seven states between the Appalachian Mountains and the Mississippi, and two states west of the Mississippi. With but one exception (Mississippi) all the states that entered the Union after the War of 1812 and before the election of Jackson (Indiana, Illinois, Alabama, Maine, Missouri) made constitutions that allowed all white male citizens over 21 years old to vote. The democratic spirit of the West spread until nearly all white men could vote in all the states after Jackson's death (1845); but some states required a voter to pay a poll (head) tax or other small tax. Some states now also demand that voters shall be able to read and write.

Difference of opinion about the new democracy.—Some believed that the rule of all the people would at once secure good government. Crowds came to see Jackson inaugurated. Although there were no railroads, some traveled five hundred miles to witness the event. "People really seem to think," wrote a New England eyewitness of the inauguration, "that the country is rescued from some dreadful danger."

Others thought that the ignorance and rashness of a frontier fighter, untrained in government, would wreck the nation. A judge of the Supreme Court of the United States wrote: "The reign of King Mob seemed triumphant." The crowd dashed to the inauguration reception at the White House, where some stood on chairs, trying to see Jackson. To lessen the rush for

eatables inside the White House, generous bowls of punch were taken to the lawn. The followers of John Quincy Adams and of Henry Clay shook their heads sadly over what they called the rule of the rabble and the unwashed.

The spoils system.—The spoils system means the use of government offices as spoils, or plunder, to reward men who help the victorious party win. Under this system, fitness for the office does not determine the selection of the office holder. The worst blot on the Jackson administration was the introduction of the spoils system into the national government. Before this time some states had used this system, which proved to be an easy way of paying political workers at the public expense; but Jackson was the first President to adopt it for the national government.

Men were now discharged for no other reason than that some one who had voted for Jackson wanted a job. One man who took the place of a competent official stole the government's money. From the beginning of Washington's administration to that of Jackson's, a period of forty years, seventy-four men had been removed from office. In one year Jackson turned out nearly two thousand government employees, many of them postmasters.

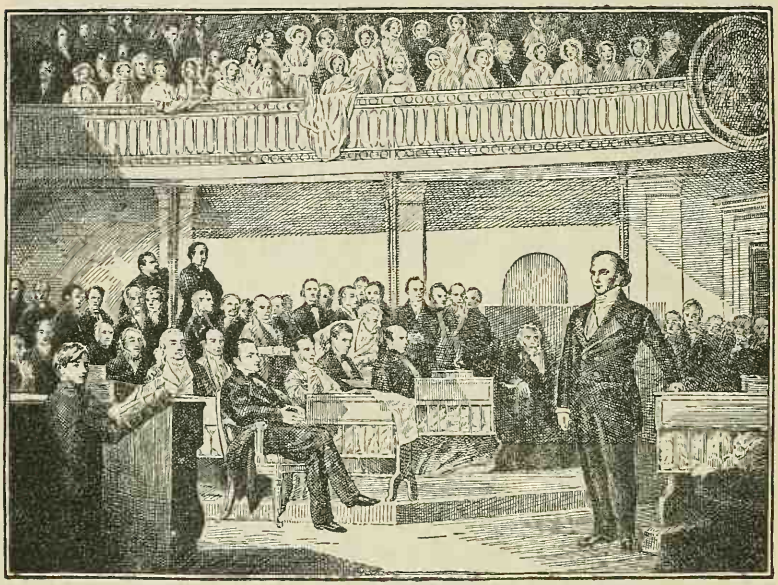
Thirty-five years before, James Madison had said that wholesale discharges of good officials for political reasons would be cause for impeaching a President. The majority now approved what Jackson did. One reason for the change of mind was that the new democracy of the West not only believed that one man was as good as another, but also seemed to think that anybody could do anything as well as anybody else.

The question of the preservation of the Union.—After the War of 1812, most men put the nation first and planned for its greatness as a whole. But some influential men put the welfare of their state and section before that of the nation. Instead of "the nation first," their thought was "the state first."

As a result of this difference of opinion, the year 1830 witnessed the most famous duel of debate ever fought out in Congress.

The general subject of this debate was whether the nation or the state was supreme. America's greatest orator, Daniel Webster (1782–1852), took the part of the nation.

Webster was born in New Hampshire. While a child he read some of the world's great books and learned poems and passages



WEBSTER REPLYING TO HAYNE. From a painting in Faneuil Hall, Boston.

from the Bible, thus gaining a wide vocabulary and mastery of expression. During Jackson's administration Webster represented Massachusetts in the United States Senate. In a debate in the Senate arising out of the tariff question, Robert Hayne of South Carolina ably maintained (1830) the right of a state to nullify, or set aside, an act of Congress which it considered unconstitutional. In this he argued as Jefferson and Madison had argued at one time (p. 241). Webster's *Reply to Hayne*, which is the best-known of his speeches, ends with the appeal: "Liberty *and* Union, now and forever, one and inseparable." This speech helped to preserve the Union in its darkest hours. More than

thirty years after the delivery of this oration, a Union officer in the Civil War said that sixty per cent of the men in an Indiana company could recite the close of this oration, "having learned it in the speaking contests in the district school."

The people of South Carolina exported cotton and rice and imported manufactured goods, which they naturally wished to purchase as cheaply as possible. A tariff imposes a duty on imported goods, which raises the prices to the buyer. In order to protect New England manufacturers against cheaper imports of foreign articles, a tariff act of Congress put a high duty on them and so raised their price. South Carolina did not have factories and did not wish to be taxed to protect those of New England. John C. Calhoun of South Carolina, the ablest statesman of the South, and Vice President of the United States, agreed with Hayne that any state could nullify an act of Congress which seemed to it unconstitutional. People wondered how Jackson stood. Two months after Webster's great oration, he let them know. At a banquet in honor of Jefferson's birthday, Jackson rose and gave this toast: "Our Union! It must be preserved."

In 1832 Congress passed a new tariff act which seemed unjust to South Carolina. South Carolina then passed a Nullification Ordinance which declared the tariff acts of the United States "null, void, and no law," and threatened to leave the Union if force was used to collect any duty within its boundaries. Jackson said, referring to South Carolina: "If one drop of blood be shed there in defiance of the laws of the United States, I will hang the first man of them I can get my hands on to the first tree I can find." Congress gave him the power to use the army and navy to collect the duties by force. Henry Clay suggested a compromise which provided for a gradual reduction in the tariff, and South Carolina repealed her Nullification Ordinance. Jackson's firm stand in this matter made him a hero in the eyes of all who upheld the supremacy of the Union. He made a triumphal tour through New England, where he had been least popular, and Harvard College gave him the degree of LL.D.

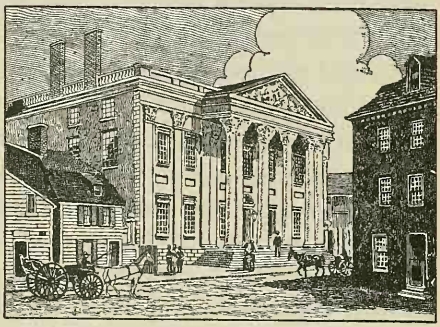
Questions not settled.—Clay's tariff compromise left for our Civil War (1861–1865) the settlement of the question whether a state could nullify an act of Congress or could secede from the Union. Some think there would have been less bloodshed if Jackson had refused to compromise at this time.

Not only were there threats of disobeying national laws, but the decisions of the United States Supreme Court were sometimes defied. Ohio had collected a tax on a branch of the United States Bank in defiance of that Court. A missionary who went to the Cherokee Indians in Georgia was imprisoned by that state for entering the Cherokee lands without her permission. The Supreme Court of the United States decided that the laws of Georgia had no force in the territory of the Cherokees and ordered the release of the missionary, but Georgia paid no attention to the order. Georgia had also hanged a Cherokee Indian in defiance of the Supreme Court. Jackson could have sent an army to Georgia to enforce the Court's decision, but he did not take such a step, possibly because he, like many others, did not think the Indians had a right to their own lands.

Removal of Indians to lands beyond the Mississippi.—In Jackson's second administration, Congress set apart a great Indian reservation, west of the Mississippi River. All that country outside the boundaries of Louisiana, Arkansas, and Missouri was at first included in this Indian Territory. Jackson said: "The pledge of the United States has been given by Congress that the country destined for the residence of the Indians shall be forever 'secured and guaranteed to them.'"

The removal of the Indians beyond the Mississippi was hastened by the coming of the steamboat and the more rapid settlement of the West. In a message to Congress (1834) Jackson said: "With the exception of two small bands living in Ohio and Indiana, not exceeding 1500 persons, and of the Cherokees, all the tribes on the east side of the Mississippi, and extending from Lake Michigan to Florida, have entered into engagements which will lead to their transplantation."

The United States Bank.—During the first fifty years under the Constitution, the United States had two central banks. The first United States Bank was chartered for twenty years (1791–1811) to take care of the public funds. The second Bank of the United States also received a charter for twenty years (1816–1836). Jackson vetoed a bill for the renewal of the second bank's charter, because he thought the bank a dangerous monopoly and a menace to good government. In the election of 1832, Henry Clay was the candidate for the presidency who opposed the reëlection of Jackson. The renewal of the charter of the bank became the leading issue of the campaign. The bank had performed a needed service for the country, but the growing spirit of democracy disliked anything that could be called a "money power," and so Jackson was reëlected by a large majority. The charter of the bank was never renewed. Jackson crippled it three years before the expiration of its charter by depositing the government's money in state banks, which often loaned the government's money for speculation in land. The second Bank of the United States became a state bank and after a struggle passed out of existence.



First Bank of the United States, Philadelphia

Although Jackson did all that he could to wreck the bank before its charter expired, even his opponents could say with Daniel Webster: "General Jackson is an honest and upright man. He does what he thinks is right and he does it with all his might. When he is calm, his judgment is good; when angry, it is usually bad." Jackson always thought that those who differed with him must be wrong. His treatment of the bank is only one of the cases in which he was determined to have his own way in

spite of advice. For this reason, his administration is sometimes called "the Reign of Andrew Jackson." Congress had been growing accustomed to look on the chief executive as a messenger boy. Jackson stopped that way of regarding the President.

Inflation and its results.—The state banks issued enormous amounts of paper money, which made prices rise. Men bought all sorts of things and held them for an advance. There was the wildest speculation in public lands. Men borrowed money from the banks with which to buy government lands, expecting to make a fortune quickly from their sale and to pay off debts from the profits. The government unwisely took this "wild-cat" paper in payment for its lands. Jackson became alarmed at the large amount of paper money and issued his famous "Specie Circular," which ordered that no more lands should be sold except for hard money. This order pricked the bubble of inflation. Private citizens then demanded that the banks should redeem their paper money in gold. Every bank in the country suspended specie payment, and a panic followed. There was a wild rush to sell things, but there were few buyers. Ninety per cent of the business men in the country failed.

The United States could not get its funds which had been deposited in the state banks, and it was temporarily bankrupt. Some states actually went into bankruptcy and never paid their creditors. British capitalists lost millions of dollars which they had loaned in this country. American credit suffered in the eyes of the world.

Van Buren.—Martin Van Buren of New York, who was Jackson's choice, was elected President (1836) to succeed him. Van Buren, who promised to "tread generally in the footsteps of Jackson," had been Secretary of State and Vice President in Jackson's administration. Van Buren's ancestors had come to New Netherland from Holland (1633) and had not intermarried with the English for more than two hundred years. He was, therefore, of pure Dutch stock. He had as much education as a New York village academy could give him up to the age of

fifteen, when he began work in a lawyer's office. He expressed his regret over such a narrow education and said that in later life he often had to dodge a debate until he could prepare for it.

Van Buren expressed his belief in democracy in these words: "My faith in the capacity of the masses of the people of our country to govern themselves, and in their general integrity in the exercise of that function, was very decided and was more and more strengthened as my intercourse with them extended."

The panic of 1837.— The hard times which Van Buren's administration inherited from Jackson's are known in history as the panic of 1837. The distress which resulted made Van Buren so unpopular that he was not reëlected.

This panic was ended far more quickly than would be possible to-day, because thousands of men who had been thrown out of work went to the frontier and secured rich land on which they could earn their living.

National treasuries.—Van Buren saw that it would not be safe for the government to deposit any more of its money in state banks. He said that the United States should have some place of its own for depositing its money. Then, even if all the banks in the country failed, the government's money would be safe. The most original act of his administration was the passage of a bill (1840) for an independent "subtreasury" system. This led to the construction of national treasuries with strong vaults in Washington, New York, Boston, Charleston, and St. Louis for safekeeping of the government's money. The United States still keeps money in such treasuries, although in later years it has deposited much of its money in national banks and in the Federal Reserve banks.

Summary of Points of Emphasis for Review.—(1) Andrew Jackson, early education, life on the Tennessee frontier, how he became widely known, (2) Jacksonian democracy, what it liked, (3) political equality, (4) difference of opinion about the new democracy, (5) the spoils system, (6) Daniel Webster and the reason for his greatest oration, (7) South Carolina, the tariff, and nullification, (8) Jackson and nullification, (9) Ohio and Georgia disregard the Supreme Court, (10) Indians removed

west of the Mississippi, (11) Jackson and the United States Bank, (12) result of inflation, (13) Van Buren, ancestors, education, belief in the masses, (14) panic of 1837 and its remedy, (15) national treasuries.

Activities.—Read a short account of Jackson's life from W. G. Brown's *Andrew Jackson*, or Ogg's *Reign of Andrew Jackson*, 1–67 (Chron. of Am.), or some cyclopedia, and be ready to tell it to the class and to the family at home.

Either write a short story entitled: "My Twenty-Four Hours on the Frontier in Jackson's Time," or imagine yourself a frontiersman (1828) and write a short campaign circular giving reasons why Jackson should be elected President.

Imagine yourself John Quincy Adams and tell the class what you fear from the rule of the Jacksonian democracy. Then imagine yourself Andrew Jackson and tell what was accomplished by that rule.

In fifty words write your opinion of the "spoils system."

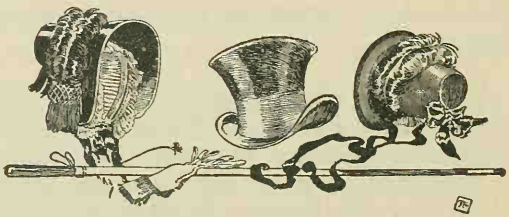
Read Webster's *Reply to Hayne*. What was his greatest idea in this speech? What led him to deliver it?

Show how inflation caused the panic of 1837 and why it ended sooner than could now be expected.

Make a list of the good and the bad influences that we have inherited from Jackson's administration.

References for Teachers.—Fish, *Development of Am. Nationality*, 184–240; Ogg, *The Reign of Andrew Jackson* (Chron. of Am.); Channing, *Hist. of the U. S.*, V., 378–433; Bassett, *Life of Andrew Jackson;* McMaster, *Hist. of People of U. S.*, Vols. V., VI.; Turner, *Rise of the New West*, III., IV., V., VI., XIX.; MacDonald, *Jacksonian Democracy;* Dodd, *Expansion and Conflict*, 1–95; Sparks, *Men Who Made the Nation*, 282–332; Wilson, *Division and Reunion*, 2–115; Hart, *Am. Hist. Told by Contemporaries*, III., 531–560.

For Pupils.—Blaisdell and Ball, *Hero Stories from Am. Hist.*, 185–198; Foote and Skinner, *Makers and Defenders of Am.*, 168–177; Baldwin, *Four Great Americans*, 125–184; Gordy, *Am. Leaders and Heroes*, 253–271; Brown, *Andrew Jackson* (Riverside Biog. Series), 87–145; Stoddard, *Errand Boy of Andrew Jackson* (fiction); Otis, *Philip of Texas* (fiction).



Hat and Bonnets about 1835

CHAPTER XXII

EXPANSION TO THE PACIFIC

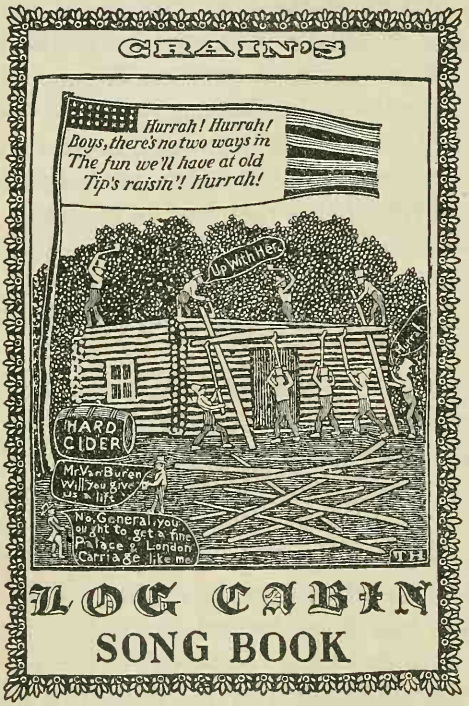
Political parties.—The makers of the Constitution did not expect that the government would be controlled by political parties. But parties were formed almost at once, because of differences about political questions. In Washington's time the central government exercised more power than the Constitution expressly gave to it. A party of protest therefore arose under Jefferson (p. 238). After the War of 1812 there was for more than a quarter of a century only one party, the Republican, which sometimes split up into different factions and followed different leaders. John Quincy Adams, Jackson, and Clay all called themselves "Republicans."

The first Republican party took the name "Democratic" after Jacksonian democracy triumphed. The Whig party, which was formed (1834) to oppose President Jackson, elected only two Presidents and was succeeded by the present Republican party (1856).

The Federalist party and its successors, the Whig and the later Republican party, usually believed in the implied powers of the Constitution (p. 238), in a strong central government as opposed to state rights, and in extending the powers of government in many ways not actually ordered by the Constitution. The principal opposition party, first called "Republican" and later "Democratic," usually demanded a strict construction of the Constitution, supported the rights of states, and opposed a broad extension of the powers of the central government. Sometimes one party would adopt the principles of the other and try to "steal its thunder" in order to win.

Election of Harrison and Tyler.—The Jacksonian democracy was in control of the government for twelve years (1829–1841).

In the election of 1840 the Whig candidate for the presidency was William Henry Harrison of Ohio, who had beaten the Indians at Tippecanoe (p. 261) and had won the battle of the Thames in the War of 1812. He was chosen for his military reputation. The majority of the Whigs wanted Henry Clay, who had run for the presidency in 1824 and 1832, but the party convention nominated Harrison. John Tyler, a former governor of Virginia and a United States senator, was nominated for the vice presidency. The Democrats renominated Van Buren.



COVER OF A CAMPAIGN SONG BOOK OF 1840

The songs were sung at rallies for Harrison and Tyler. The picture shows how the pioneers built the walls of a log cabin.

The campaign which followed was one of the strangest in our history. The Whigs stole Jackson's thunder about the common people. The campaign speakers said that Van Buren was an aristocrat; that he sat on stuffed chairs, had silver plate, ate with gold spoons, and had paid no attention to the misery of the common people during the panic. A Democratic paper, making fun of Harrison, said that he would feel most at home drinking hard cider in the log cabin on his Ohio farm. The Whigs at once saw that hard cider and log cabins would catch the crowd. They had log cabins on wheels in their parades and hard cider at their rallies. Sometimes ten acres

of people assembled to drink the cider, see the log cabins, and shout "Tippecanoe and Tyler too." Harrison received nearly four electoral votes to Van Buren's one.

Death of Harrison; Tyler becomes President.—The Whigs were overjoyed at the election of Harrison. The administration started well, with Daniel Webster as Secretary of State. But exactly one month after his inauguration, Harrison died (April, 1841).

He was succeeded by Vice President John Tyler. To most people he was known merely as "Tyler too." No one had ever thought of his becoming President, for no President before this had died in office. People now wondered what kind of man he was. Most of his beliefs were really those of the opposite party.

A President without a party.—The Whig majority in Congress passed a charter for a new United States Bank, which Tyler vetoed. They then passed another, which they tried to draw to meet his objections; but he vetoed that also, although he knew such a bank charter was a favorite measure of the Whig party. The Whigs then called him a traitor and would have nothing more to do with him. All the Whig members of his cabinet, with the exception of Webster, resigned, and Tyler became almost a figurehead without a party.

Daniel Webster remained Secretary of State to carry on negotiations with Great Britain for fixing a part of the boundary line between the United States and Canada. The north boundary of Maine was the chief point of dispute. War would have resulted if both nations had not been sensible. Webster and the British minister, Lord Ash'burton, agreed on the line from the Atlantic Ocean to the St. Lawrence River, as it is to-day. They also made very slight changes in the boundary west to the Rocky Mountains, which had been determined by treaties in 1783 and 1818. This agreement is known as the Webster-Ashburton Treaty (1842). In making it, these two skillful statesmen showed the world how much better it is to settle disputes by reason than by war.

The Lone Star Republic.—Texas, before admission to our Union, was an independent republic and, like any other foreign country, sent ministers to the United States. Texas had one

FLAGS OF TEXAS

star in its flag and was therefore called the "Lone Star Republic."

How did Texas become a republic? The first step was when Mexico and Central America, like South America, became independent of Spain in 1821. The second step was the colonization of Texas, then a part of Mexico, by citizens of the United States. In a few years (1821–1830) more colonists went there from the United States than had come from Spain during the three centuries of Spanish rule. The Mexicans invited these American colonists to Texas, thinking that they would improve the country. They did improve it, but in a different way from what had been imagined.

The third step reminds us of our own Declaration of Independence. When Mexico governed the Texan colonists unwisely, they revolted, just as the American colonies had revolted from Great Britain. In securing independence, Texas had her heroes just as we had ours in the Revolution. The Mexican general, Santa Anna, with an army of 3000 surrounded the Alamo, (ä′lä-mō), an old Spanish mission house, which sheltered 150 Texans. The Mexicans raised the red flag as a signal that no quarter would be given. The Texans, every one of them a hero, fought for nearly two weeks until the last man was killed. Texas

soon had her revenge at the battle of San Jacin'to (1836), where General Sam Houston (hūs'tun) destroyed Santa Anna's army and freed Texas. Since most of the Texans had come from the United States, it was natural that they should now wish to be annexed to their mother country.

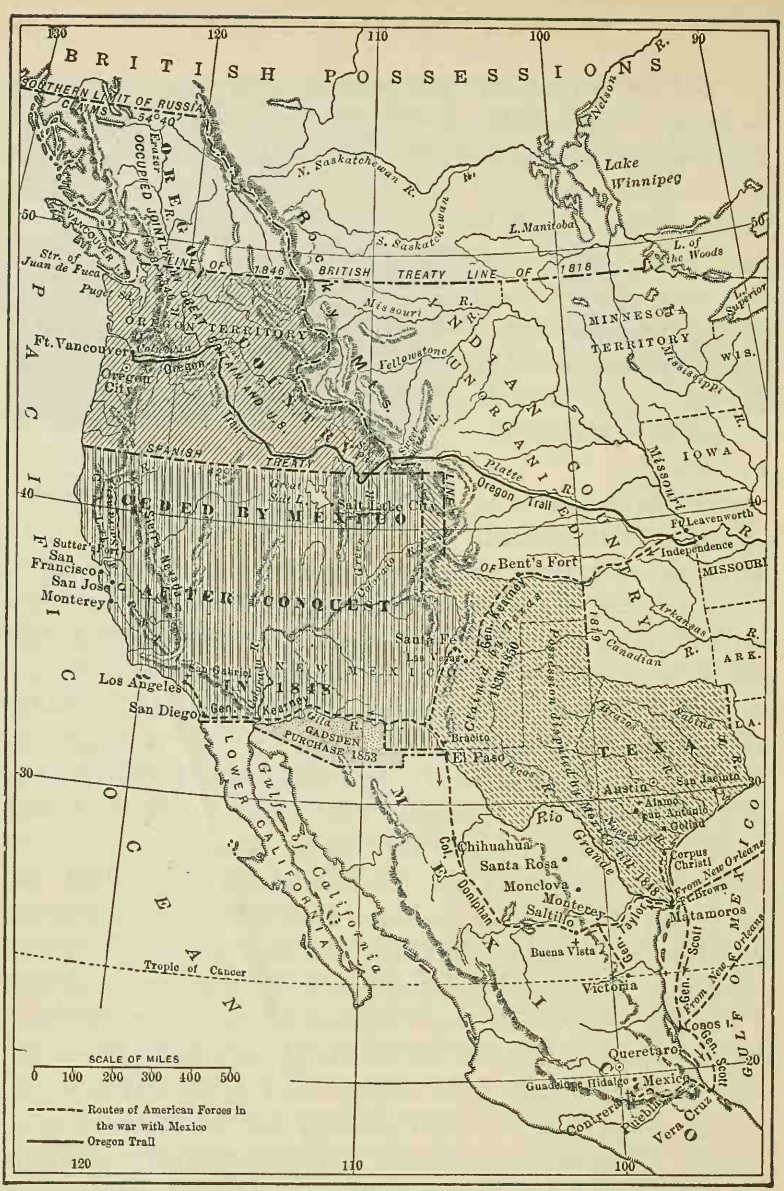
FRONT OF THE ALAMO

This old mission house at San Antonio, Texas, was occupied by the Texans because its strong walls made it suitable for defense.

Why annexation was opposed.—In the United States, however, there was strong opposition to the annexation of Texas. Most of the Texan colonists had come from the South and had taken their slaves with them. The North feared that several slave states would be made out of the territory of Texas, which claimed parts of the present states of New Mexico, Oklahoma, Kansas, Colorado, and Wyoming. Daniel Webster said that Texas was so large that a bird could not fly over it in a week. This northern opposition kept Texas out of the Union for nine years after it secured its independence.

Polk versus Clay.—In the presidential election of 1844 the annexation of Texas was an issue. Henry Clay was the Whig candidate, this being the third and last time that he ran for the presidency. The Whigs were generally opposed to the annexation of Texas as a slave state, but Clay realized that many southern Whigs, as well as some in the North, favored such a step. In order to catch this vote, Clay wrote a letter saying that he would welcome annexation if it could be brought about without war or dishonor. This letter made many in the North angry, although it won him some votes in the South.

The Democrats nominated a "dark horse," that is, a man who had scarcely been thought of for the presidency. This man was



CAMPAIGNS IN THE WAR WITH MEXICO, AND TERRITORIES ACQUIRED FROM 1846 TO 1853

James K. Polk (pōk) of Tennessee, who had been speaker of the national House of Representatives and governor of his state. He and his party strongly favored the annexation of Texas. Polk was elected by a small majority over Clay and served one term (1845–1849). Polk's election caused the admission of Texas to the Union as the twenty-eighth state (1845). Other states admitted after Missouri (p. 279) and before Texas were Arkansas (1836), Michigan (1837), and Florida (1845). The admission of the slave states, Florida and Texas, was balanced by the admission of the free states, Iowa (1846) and Wisconsin (1848).

War with Mexico (1846–1848).—The Mexican state of Texas extended only as far south as the Nueces (nū-ā′sās) River. The United States rightly contended that the southern boundary of the Louisiana Purchase should have been the Rio Grande (rē′ō grän′dā). This argument was offset by the fact that the United States had at the time of the Florida Purchase (p. 275) given up all right to Texas, no matter how much or how little there was of it.

Polk sent General Zachary Taylor with an army to hold the region between the Rio Grande and the Nueces, which was claimed by both Texas and Mexico. When Mexico attacked him there (1846), Polk said: "Mexico has shed American blood upon American soil. War exists, and exists by the act of Mexico herself." Congress agreed with Polk and declared war.

Many at the North thought the war unnecessary and feared it would result in an extension of slave territory. The New England poet, James Russell Lowell, wrote *The Biglow Papers, First Series*, as a satire on the Mexican War. A line from that poem shows what reason some people gave for the war:

"Our nation's bigger'n theirn an' so its rights air bigger."

On the other hand, Mexico had delayed settling just claims for damages to American enterprises. She had imprisoned Americans unjustly and treated some of them inhumanly. She had mistaken our forbearance for cowardice and had thought

that Great Britain would take her part. Had Mexico not been a weak power, we should probably have made war on her with less delay.

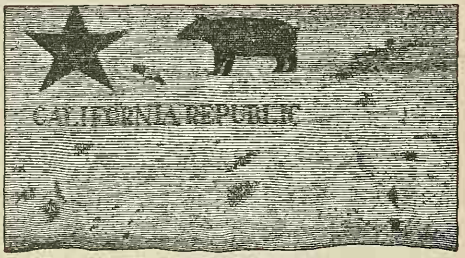
Generals Zachary Taylor and Winfield Scott won great fame for their victories over larger Mexican forces. Other men, such as Ulysses S. Grant, Robert E. Lee, Thomas J. ("Stonewall") Jackson, and William T. Sherman, who were afterwards famous in our Civil War, were trained in fighting in the Mexican war. General Scott, our commanding general, fought his way from Vera Cruz (vā′rä krōōs′) to the city of Mexico, which he took in 1847. The Americans won every battle of the war.

The Wilmot Proviso (1846).—Before the United States had annexed any Mexican territory, David Wilmot, a Democrat from Pennsylvania, introduced in the House of Representatives the proviso that slavery should not be permitted in any territory that we might acquire from Mexico. The House of Representatives passed this proviso, which angered the South. As the Senate did not pass it, the proviso failed to become law, but it increased sectional feeling and was one of the steps toward our Civil War. The South saw that its problem was to retain control of the Senate.

California and New Mexico.—President Polk especially wanted California and the harbor of San Francisco, and was planning to secure that territory before war was declared with Mexico. John C. Frémont (frē-mŏnt′), a famous explorer of the Rocky Mountain and Pacific coast region, was then (1846) in California at the head of a body of explorers. He probably had secret orders from his government to aid in getting California without breaking international law. Men associated with Frémont declared California a republic, independent of Mexican rule (June 14, 1846), and hoisted as its flag a flour sack on which had been painted a star, a bear, and the words "California Republic."

The first official action to secure the territory for the United States was taken by Commodore Sloat, of the navy. He had not

heard of the declaration of war with Mexico, but he feared that Great Britain would secure California if he did not act quickly. He therefore sailed into the Bay of Monterey (mŏn-tĕ-rā′) and raised the American flag over the Mexican custom-house, July 7, 1846. That was a great day in the history of the Pacific coast, which has since remained under the protection of the Stars and Stripes.



California Bear Flag

Raised in northern California June 14, 1846; lowered July 11, 1846, and replaced by the flag of the United States.

Nine days later a British man-of-war came, saw the American flag flying, and withdrew. Americans have never ceased to be proud of this action of our navy.

About the same time, General Stephen Kearny (kär′nĭ), in command of the Army of the West, marched into New Mexico and said to its people: "I have come among you by the orders of my government, to take possession of your country and extend over it the laws of the United States. We come among you for your benefit, not for your injury." He set up the civil government of this new territory of the United States at the old town of Santa Fe, which received him without resistance (1846).

The Mexican cession.—The treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo (gô-da-lo͞op′ hĭ-dăl′go), which ended the Mexican war (1848), gave to the United States, in addition to the disputed strip between the Nueces and the Rio Grande, (1) California and (2) the territory to the east including what is now Nevada, Utah, most of Arizona and New Mexico, and parts of Wyoming and Colorado. This region contained 529,000 square miles of new territory and ranked next in size to the Louisiana Purchase. The treaty with Mexico extended the southern boundary of Texas to the Rio Grande.

For this cession of territory the United States paid Mexico $15,000,000. The southern boundary of Arizona and New Mexico was completed by the Gadsden purchase (1853) of 30,000 square miles of territory for $10,000,000.

The Oregon Territory.—The United States and Great Britain had agreed to a joint control of the Oregon Territory from 1818 to 1846, the year of the beginning of the Mexican War. This territory extended from 54° 40′ north latitude, which was the southern boundary of Russian Alaska, to 42°, which is the northern boundary of California. Its eastern boundary was the Rocky Mountains, and its western, the Pacific. Its area was about sixty-three times the size of Massachusetts, and four times the size of England, Scotland, and Ireland.

Claims to Oregon.—The question now was: Would Great Britain or the United States secure lasting possession of Oregon? The voyage of Captain Gray to the Columbia River (p. 253), the exploration of Oregon by Lewis and Clark (p. 250), the fur station of Astor (p. 253), were all arguments for ownership by the United States. American sailors, fur traders, and other explorers had also visited Oregon. Fortunately, too, the United States had sent more colonists there than Great Britain had. They made a path, known as the Oregon Trail (p. 328), which began at Independence on the Missouri River and led through Kansas and Nebraska,

TRAPPER

Notice the traps hanging from the pommel of the saddle.

along the Platte and Sweetwater rivers, to South Pass in the Rocky Mountains and from there to the Snake and Columbia rivers. This trail was 2000 miles long, the longest settlement trail of which we have knowledge. A young Harvard graduate, Francis Parkman, followed the Oregon Trail in the first year of the Mexican War and described his journey in an interesting book which he called *The California and Oregon Trail.*

Hunters, trappers, fur traders, and missionaries to the Indians went first along the Oregon Trail. Then came permanent settlers—men who brought their wives, made homes, and became farmers. Had it not been for these early home makers, Oregon might now be a part of Canada.

The annexation of Oregon.—It is doubtful if Polk could have been elected on the single issue of annexing Texas, because so many northern people objected to more slave territory. The Democrats promised to add Oregon to the North, so that it would be more willing to let the South have Texas. They started the campaign slogan, "Fifty-four Forty or Fight!" This meant that we would have Oregon up to the parallel of 54° 40′ or fight Great Britain. But the leading statesmen of the United States did not want a war with Great Britain in addition to the one with Mexico. After the election excitement had died away, a compromise was made, by which we accepted the parallel of 49° north latitude as the northern boundary of Oregon (1846). This was simply an extension of the boundary line already agreed on east of the Rocky Mountains.

The annexation of Oregon added 286,000 square miles to our territory. It included the present states of Oregon, Washington, and Idaho, and part of Montana and Wyoming.

Manifest destiny.—People had been saying it was the "manifest destiny" of the United States to extend west to the Pacific. At the time of the Revolution, George Rogers Clark had worked heroically to extend our country to the Mississippi. Until 1803 the Mississippi remained our western boundary. The Louisiana Purchase then took our flag as far west as the Rocky Mountains.

By three annexations in three years (1845–1848), we gained nearly all the land west of the Louisiana Purchase to the Pacific —the largest addition in our history. We now had a new coast line of more than a thousand miles on the Pacific.

Summary of Points of Emphasis for Review.—(1) The election of Harrison and Tyler, (2) why Tyler was "a President without a party," (3) how Texas secured its independence, (4) why the North opposed the annexation of Texas to the United States, (5) why Clay did not become President, (6) the causes and result of our war with Mexico, (7) the Wilmot Proviso, (8) how California and New Mexico were taken by the United States, (9) the territory gained by the Mexican cession, (10) British and American claims to Oregon, (11) why the American claim was stronger, (12) the manifest destiny of the United States.

Activities.—Suppose you had lived in 1846; give your reasons for favoring or opposing war with Mexico.

Contrast our Mexican troubles and our methods of dealing with them in 1846 and in the twentieth century.

On a map of the United States, begin with the original thirteen colonies and outline the successive movements westward. Insert the name and date of each addition of territory. Draw the Oregon Trail from Independence, Missouri, to Fort Vancouver, Oregon.

Write one hundred words on "How the United States Received its Present Boundaries."

Read Parkman's book, *The California and Oregon Trail*, and tell some of the incidents in class. (The teacher may read to the class in Hart, *How Our Grandfathers Lived*, 166–168, and in his *Source Book of American History*, 268–271, incidents in Parkman's journey.)

References for Teachers.—Channing, *Hist. of the U. S.*, V., 499–615; Skinner, *Adventurers of Oregon* (Chron. of Am.), 211–272; White, *The Forty-Niners* (Chron. of Am.), 1–45; Garrison, *Westward Extension*, 3–288; Dodd, *Expansion and Conflict*, 114–160; Sparks, *The Expansion of the Am. People*, 301–335; Hart, *Am. Hist. Told by Contemporaries*, III., 637–655; Coman, *Economic Beginnings of the Far West*, II., 94–166, 207–255; Fish, *Development of Am. Nationality*, 244–262, 302–314; Hough, *Fifty-four Forty or Fight* (fiction).

For Pupils.—Roosevelt and Lodge, *Hero Tales from Am. Hist.*, 163–181; Elson, *Side Lights on Am. Hist.*, 223–240; Parkman, *The Oregon Trail;* Hasbrouck, *Boys' Parkman;* Hough, *The Way to the West*, Ch. III. (The Oregon Trail); Wright, *Children's Stories of Am. Progress*, 230–278; Coffin, *Building the Nation*, 291–304, 314–358, 363–386; McMurry, *Pioneers of the Rocky Mts. and the West*, II., VI.; Davis, *Under Six Flags*, 50–140.

Fiction: Altsheler, *The Quest of the Four;* Barr, *Remember the Alamo;* Cooper, *Pioneers;* McNeil, *Fighting with Fremont; In Texas with Davy Crockett;* Brady, *In the War with Mexico;* Otis, *Philip of Texas.*

CHAPTER XXIII

SLAVERY TROUBLE (1849-1861)

The ownership of human beings.—History shows that from very early times men owned slaves who were as much under the control of their masters as oxen. Slavery was then thought merciful, because prisoners of war were often killed unless they were kept as slaves. The Greeks had slaves and declared that some human beings were naturally born to command and others to obey. Americans who kept slaves said that the Greeks were right in believing that nature intended certain races to be slaves.

The belief that the few are born to rule while the many are fit only to obey, long remained unquestioned. But soon after the English colonization of America, thoughtful Englishmen and Frenchmen began to ask the reason for this inequality and they came to the conclusion that "*all men are by nature free and equal.*" Thomas Jefferson, one of the most famous men of the South, made human equality in government the corner stone of the Declaration of Independence. He declared that "Life, Liberty, and the pursuit of Happiness" are "unalienable Rights" of all. He tried unsuccessfully to put a paragraph in the Declaration condemning the king of Great Britain for his determination "to keep open a market where men should be bought and sold" and "for suppressing every legislative attempt to prohibit or to restrain this execrable commerce."

Both North and South are responsible for introducing slavery into the English colonies. New Englanders made money by bringing shiploads of slaves to America. The northern colonists had slaves but gradually found them unprofitable. The cultivation of cotton made slavery profitable in the South (p. 293). It is easy to argue that what is profitable is right; thus New England shipowners argued that slaves were better off

in America than in Africa, and cotton planters declared that the Bible approved of slavery, and came to believe that it was a benefit to the negro. If the climate had been different, so that all the cotton and rice lands had been in the North, the South might have been the first to insist that slaves should be freed.

Early abolitionists unpopular in the North.—Widespread feeling that slavery is wrong developed slowly, even after the Declaration of Independence. In the first third of the nineteenth century, "abolitionists," as those who believed in abolishing slavery were called, were almost as unpopular in the North as in the South. A mob tied a rope to William Lloyd Garrison (1805–1879), a famous early abolitionist, and dragged him through the streets of Boston. An Illinois mob killed the editor of a paper for attacking slavery. The attorney-general of Massachusetts said of this editor: "He died as the fool dieth." The antislavery poems of John Greenleaf Whittier, the New England Quaker poet, made him unpopular with publishers and magazine editors. Connecticut imprisoned a woman for teaching negroes without the consent of the town officers. The North long thought that abolitionists were impractical and ought to be suppressed.

Growing opposition to slavery.—The opposition to slavery gradually became worldwide. Great Britain and France freed their slaves before 1850. People were then impressed with the fact that the United States was the only great civilized nation to uphold slavery. Mexico abolished it in 1829 and urged Cuba to become independent of Spain and to free her slaves. The new interest in social reform was continually growing in the United States. Societies were organized not only to abolish slavery but also to promote temperance, the humane treatment of the insane, and the rights of women.

Stories like the following, told by John Randolph of Virginia, a descendant of Pocahontas, made people think. "The greatest orator I ever heard," said Randolph, "was a woman. She was a slave. She was a mother, and her rostrum was the auction block." She was pleading not to be separated from her children.

Such cases of separation were not the rule, but many began to feel that it ought never to be in the power of any person to cause such a separation. Abraham Lincoln expressed the opinion of many when he said that no one was good enough to be the master of another, and that if he were good enough, he would not want such power.

The political history of the thirteen years following the war with Mexico (1848–1861) revolves around the question of slavery. The opposition to it was continually growing more intense.

Three administrations (1849–1861).—The influence of slavery was felt in all the nominations for the presidency during this period. Zachary Taylor of Louisiana, a general in the Mexican War, who was thought to be favorable to slavery, was nominated by the Whigs. The new "Free Soil" party nominated Martin Van Buren on a platform calling for "free soil, free speech, free labor, and free men." He polled enough Democratic votes to cause the defeat of the Democratic party, so that Taylor was elected. In a little more than a year after he was inaugurated, Taylor died (1850). He was succeeded by Vice President Millard Fillmore, a former member of the national House of Representatives, who had grown up on a pioneer farm in central New York. His father had two books in his library, the Bible and a hymn book, and the boy was nineteen before he saw a copy of Shakespeare or of *Robinson Crusoe*, or a map of the United States.

The next President was Franklin Pierce, a Democrat of New Hampshire, who had been an officer in the Mexican War and a United States senator. He was elected because men believed that he would not cause trouble by attacking slavery. He was a college mate of the great American author, Nathaniel Hawthorne, who wrote for the presidential campaign a life of Pierce, which helped elect him. Pierce appointed Hawthorne consul at Liverpool and thus enabled him to take those European travels which gave him material for his romance called *The Marble Faun*. Many remember Pierce because of his relations with Hawthorne,

whose fame is more lasting than that of his presidential friend. Pierce served one term (1853–1857).

Pierce was succeeded by a Democrat, James Buchanan (bŭ-kăn′ăn) of Pennsylvania. He had been United States senator, Secretary of State, and minister to Russia and to Great Britain. He was chosen because it was known that he favored slavery and would try to keep the peace between the North and the South. Like the other Presidents after Jackson's time until the Civil War, he served only one term (1857–1861).

The balance of free and slave states.—Gold was discovered in California in 1848. So many gold seekers, known as "Forty-Niners," rushed to California the next year that it was ready to become a state in a little more than a year after it had been ceded to the United States. It surprised the South by asking for admission as a state without slavery. The South said that the southern half of California ought to be a slave state, because a prolongation of the southern boundary line of Missouri would meet the Pacific Ocean near Monterey. If this boundary of the Missouri Compromise were extended through the new territory, southern California would be open to slavery. In 1849, when California applied for admission to the Union, there were fifteen free and fifteen slave states, and the South was anxious to preserve the balance (pp. 279, 329).

Compromise of 1850.—The South demanded that the new Southwest ceded by Mexico should be open to slavery and that the states formed from this territory should be slave states, so that each section might continue to have an equal number of senators. The North was opposed to the extension of slavery. There would have been civil war then if neither side had yielded.

Henry Clay, who was then in the Senate, took up for the third time the role of peacemaker (pp. 280, 317). He was assisted by Daniel Webster, whose famous Seventh of March speech in favor of compromise offended the northern abolitionists and made them call him a traitor to the cause of humanity.

EFFECT OF COMPROMISE OF 1850 AND KANSAS-NEBRASKA ACT OF 1854 (p. 343)

Both sides finally agreed to the following compromise, known as the Compromise of 1850:

(1) All of California was admitted as a free state;

(2) Texas gave up its claim to New Mexico and lands farther north and was paid $10,000,000 by the United States;

(3) The Mexican cession outside of Texas and California was divided into two territories, New Mexico and Utah. Owners of slaves might take them into these territories. Any state formed in this region was to be a slave or a free state as the majority of its people might wish.

(4) A strict Fugitive Slave Law was passed, to make it easier for southern owners to recover slaves that escaped to the North.

(5) There were to be no more slave markets in the District of Columbia, but persons living there might have slaves.

The majority of people in both sections thought that this compromise settled the dispute about slavery.

Trouble over the Fugitive Slave Law.—The Constitution gave the South the right to ask for the return of fugitive slaves

(Appendix, p. xviii). President Washington once wrote to a friend in New Hampshire about the return of a negro (1796), but added that he preferred to have the negro remain if his removal would "excite a mob or riot, or even uneasy sensations in the minds of well-disposed citizens." He yielded the legal right, and the former slave was left in New Hampshire. This helps to show what a remarkable man Washington was. He was anxious to know and respect the minds and feelings of others.

It is difficult to enforce a law in direct opposition to humane feeling. Southern slaveholders sometimes assisted runaways to escape from cruel masters. A humane master offered to buy a runaway slave at a fair price. The cruel owner agreed to the sale if he could first take his revenge on the runaway; if not, the price would be double. Such stories led people to aid fugitives.

The new Fugitive Slave Law increased the feeling of pity for slaves. A jury could be called to determine the ownership of a stray horse but not of a negro, under this law, although he might happen to be a free negro. Any agent of a slave owner could make oath that the negro he had seized was the fugitive, and the negro could not testify in his own behalf. The law compelled bystanders to help arrest a suspected fugitive. Northern people said that the South was trying to make slave catchers of them. The Fugitive Slave Law ordered a double fee to be given to a judge if he directed the return of the fugitive. This provision made the North very angry.

The Fugitive Slave Law led Harriet Beecher Stowe, a sister of the great pulpit orator, Henry Ward Beecher, to write *Uncle Tom's Cabin*. This story caused world-wide sympathy for the slave and became one of the causes of the Civil War. The South complained that the book did not give a fair idea of slavery, but *Uncle Tom's Cabin* outsold every other book written by an American and was soon translated into more than thirty different languages.

Many northern states now put in practice the theory of nullification (pp. 241, 317). Wisconsin's supreme court declared

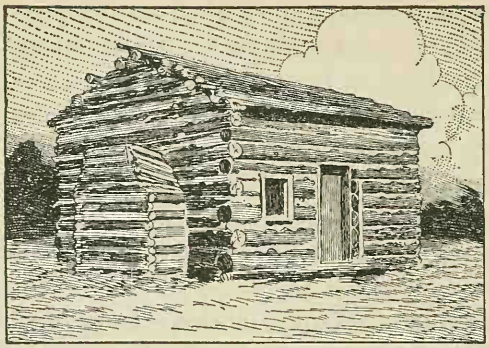
the national Fugitive Slave Act unconstitutional, and its legislature later claimed the right of secession from the United States if the national government tried to force obedience to the law. Vermont passed a law forbidding the return of fugitive slaves. Some states fined an officer if he helped capture a slave, and they would not allow lawyers to practice again if they represented the owner of the fugitive. Massachusetts passed a law that any one who helped enforce the Fugitive Slave Law should be imprisoned for five years.

The Underground Railroad.—Many fugitive slaves were returned to their masters, but the so-called "Underground Railroad" helped to make the number fewer. This was neither underground nor a railroad. It was a system of well-planned routes of escape for slaves. Houses or other places, about twenty miles apart, where the fugitive could be concealed during the day, were called the "stations" of the road. The runaways were usually taken to the next station by night. Some stopped in the northern tier of states, but many passed through to Canada, where slavery was illegal under English law. Levi Coffin, a Quaker, was called "president" of the Underground Railroad, because he aided in the escape of more than 3000 slaves.

New leaders.—Calhoun, Clay, and Webster died during the first part of this period of 1849–1861, and four new leaders came to the front. These were William H. Seward (sū′ērd), Abraham Lincoln, Stephen A. Douglas, and Jefferson Davis.

Seward (1801–1872), a former governor of New York and a member of the national Senate, came into prominence for a statement which he made while speaking against the Compromise of 1850. When told that the Constitution recognized slavery, he replied: "There is a higher law than the Constitution." His expression, "a higher law," became a slogan for those opposed to slavery.

Abraham Lincoln (1809–1865) was born in a small Kentucky log cabin and taken to Indiana when a child. He said that he never attended school more than six months. He read and



LOG CABIN WHERE LINCOLN WAS BORN

This cabin is now inclosed and preserved in a memorial hall built on the original site.

reread a few books, such as the Bible, Æsop's *Fables*, *Robinson Crusoe*, and *Pilgrim's Progress*. The Bible taught him to use simple and direct language. From Æsop he learned how to tell a story clearly and briefly, emphasizing only one point at a time. As paper was scarce, he practiced writing on a wooden shovel and on shingles, and tried to see how much he could say in a small space. His *Gettysburg Address* contains only two hundred and sixty-nine words.

In his youth Lincoln was very poor, and had to work hard. He moved to Illinois when he was twenty-one, and it was there that he earned the title of "rail-splitter." He had to split fourteen hundred rails to get the homespun cloth for one pair of trousers.

After trying a number of different ways of earning a living, he read law and was elected to the Illinois legislature. Some years later he was sent to the national House of Representatives. After this he took a high position in the practice of law and lost interest in politics until he was aroused by the question of slavery.

Stephen A. Douglas (1813–1861) was born in Vermont, but he moved west and began the practice of law in Illinois. He was so poor that at one time he had only thirty-seven cents. He made himself known by an eloquent speech in support of General Jackson, and from that time he began to secure a good law practice. His rapid rise in public life was due to his ability as a speaker and to his pleasing personality. During all the slavery troubles from 1847 until his death in 1861, he was one of the most influential of the nation's senators.

Jefferson Davis (1808–1889), like Abraham Lincoln, was born in Kentucky. The Davis family was well off and migrated to the slave state of Mississippi, while the poor Lincolns went to the free North. Davis graduated at West Point and served with distinction in the Mexican War. He was Secretary of War under President Pierce and managed the affairs of the office unusually well. Davis was also an influential United States senator before and after he was Secretary of War. He owned a cotton plantation worked by slaves.

Kansas-Nebraska Act.—Clay and many other influential members of Congress had signed an agreement to support the Compromise of 1850 and to discourage any further agitation of the slavery question. Douglas, then senator from Illinois, was one of the younger men who did not sign the agreement. In 1854 he startled the country by introducing a bill which, in its final form, provided that the part of the Louisiana Purchase north of the parallel of 37° north latitude and west of Missouri, Iowa, and Minnesota, should be organized into the two territories of Kansas and Nebraska and that these territories should have the right of deciding by a vote whether they should have slavery. The Missouri Compromise had provided that all this tract should be free soil; but Douglas now proposed to repeal it. He said that his bill was in the interest of "popular sovereignty," that is, allowing the people of each territory to make laws for themselves. This bill became a law, known as the Kansas-Nebraska Act (1854).

After the passage of this act, allowing slavery where the Missouri Compromise had declared it should be "forever prohibited," antislavery people in the North had the church bells toll a funeral knell to announce the death of freedom. Douglas himself said that he could have traveled from Washington to Chicago by the light of his burning effigies. His middle name was Arnold, and many now called him *Benedict Arnold* Douglas. Some Ohio women who thought he had betrayed the cause of freedom sent him thirty pieces of silver.

Bleeding Kansas.—The South intended that Kansas should become a slave state to balance the admission of California as a free state. The North was equally determined that Kansas should be a free state. Since the votes of those living in the territory would decide the question, each side tried to send there as many voters as possible. The slave interest in Missouri hurried over the border into Kansas numbers who voted and returned. The North called these people "Border Ruffians." Large sums of money were raised in the North to assist emigrants to settle in Kansas and to arm with rifles.

In the first territorial election there were more than twice as many votes as voters. The legislature so elected was favorable to slavery and passed laws to establish it, but the antislavery people refused to recognize the election as valid and organized a government of their own. The enmity between the two sides resulted in bloodshed and a small civil war (1856), so that the territory was rightly called "Bleeding Kansas."

Formation of the Republican party.—General Zachary Taylor was the last Whig President. The Whigs had agreed to the Fugitive Slave Law and thus angered the North. President Pierce, a Democrat, approved of slavery in Kansas. To resist the extension of slavery, the present Republican party was formed in 1854, the year of the Kansas-Nebraska Act.

The first national convention of the Republicans was held in Philadelphia in 1856. It nominated for the presidency John C. Frémont, who had a great reputation as an explorer (p. 330) and was called "the Pathfinder." He received one and one third million votes, only half a million less than his victorious Democratic opponent, James Buchanan. Lincoln and others thought that a Republican President might be elected four years later.

The Dred Scott decision.—A negro slave by the name of Dred Scott brought suit for his freedom before a United States court on the ground that his master had taken him to free territory, where Congress had declared slavery " forever prohibited." The case was appealed to the Supreme Court. Dred Scott lost

his suit (1857) because the majority of the Supreme Court, which favored slavery, decided that a negro was not a citizen of the United States and had no right to bring suit in its courts. The court also declared that the Constitution considered slaves property, that Congress had no power to forbid a citizen to take his property into any territory, and that the Missouri Compromise had, therefore, always been void.

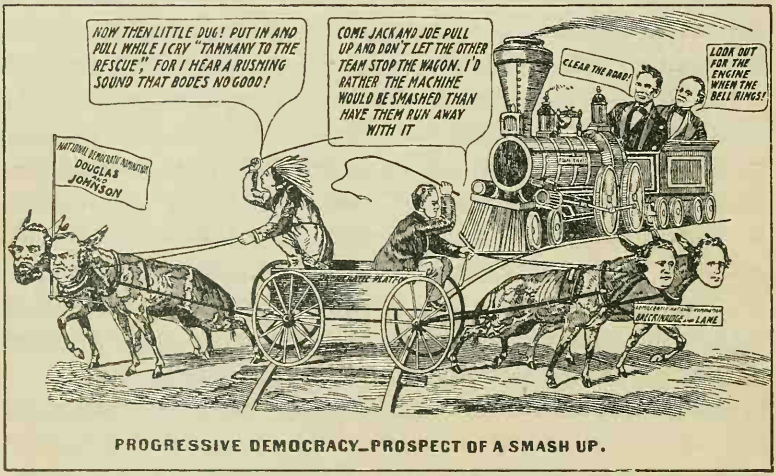
The Lincoln-Douglas debates.—The Kansas-Nebraska Act, which repealed the Missouri Compromise, caused Abraham Lincoln to take an intense interest in politics. In 1858 he became the Republican candidate for United States senator from Illinois, opposing the reëlection of Douglas, the Democratic candidate. Lincoln challenged Douglas to a series of debates in different towns, in order to bring before the people the issues for which each candidate stood. These debates argued the question of the extension of slavery into the territories, Lincoln taking the antislavery side. Douglas was then the most famous speaker in the North. There was so much interest in the debates that they were held in the open air, since no hall was large enough to hold the crowds of from five to twenty thousand.

In the debate at Freeport, Illinois, Lincoln asked Douglas whether the inhabitants of a territory could in any lawful way exclude slavery from it. Perhaps the answer to no single question has had a greater effect on our history. If Douglas said "Yes," he would disagree with the decision of the Supreme Court, anger the South, and lose its support for the presidency. If he said "No," Illinois would not elect him senator. He answered "Yes," that a territory could make slavery unprofitable by "unfriendly" legislation. Lincoln replied that Douglas claimed "a thing may be lawfully driven from the place where it has a lawful right to stay." Douglas won the senatorship, but Lincoln was satisfied, for he was after "larger game."

John Brown's raid.—John Brown, a direct descendant of a Mayflower Pilgrim, hated slavery so intensely that he went to Kansas and helped to start civil war there. His religious zeal and

his belief in his cause were so strong that he thought God would help him free the slaves. With eighteen men he captured the United States arsenal at Harpers Ferry, Virginia (1859), thinking that the slaves would come to him and he could arm them. In the fighting which followed, ten of Brown's men were killed, including two of his sons, and he was wounded. He was captured, tried by a state court for treason and murder, and hanged.

Not a slave was freed as a result of Brown's raid, which never had the slightest chance of success, but the South was thrown into a frenzy of alarm. Most people of the North disapproved of the raid, but there were also many who approved and called Brown a martyr.



Republican Campaign Cartoon of 1860

Four candidates for the presidency in 1860.—The result of the Lincoln-Douglas debates was what Lincoln had expected. The South would not have Douglas for its presidential candidate because he had said that a territory could exclude slavery by unfriendly legislation. The Democratic party split; the northern section nominated Douglas, and the southern chose John C. Breckinridge of Kentucky. Some of the old-time Whigs nomi-

nated John Bell of Tennessee. Lincoln captured his "larger game" when he was nominated by the Republicans and elected President by a majority of the electoral votes.

Summary of Points of Emphasis for Review.—(1) Early slavery, (2) new belief in the rights of all men, (3) responsibility for introduction of slavery into America, (4) reason for its spread, (5) unpopularity of abolitionists in the North, (6) growing opposition to slavery, (7) Presidents Taylor, Pierce, and Buchanan, and why each was elected, (8) balance of free and slave states, (9) Compromise of 1850, (10) why the Fugitive Slave Law caused trouble, (11) *Uncle Tom's Cabin*, (12) what states did to nullify the Fugitive Slave Law, (13) the underground railroad, (14) new leaders, (15) Kansas-Nebraska Act, (16) "bleeding Kansas," (17) formation of the Republican party, (18) Dred Scott decision, (19) Lincoln-Douglas debates, (20) John Brown's raid, (21) presidential candidates in 1860.

Activities.—Explain the connection between slavery and each of the following: (a) Virginia plantation, (b) Ordinance of 1787, (c) cotton gin, (d) Missouri Compromise, (e) annexation of Texas, (f) Mexican cession.

Draw a map showing the slave and the free states in 1849.

Review Henry Clay's career as a peacemaker.

Give your opinion of the Fugitive Slave Law from the point of view of (1) the North, (2) the South, (3) the slave.

Read the account of the "Underground Railroad" in Hart's *Romance of the Civil War*, 51–56.

Give a two-minute talk on one of the following leaders and his connection with slavery: Henry Clay, John C. Calhoun, Daniel Webster, Jefferson Davis, Abraham Lincoln, Stephen A. Douglas, and William H. Seward.

Suppose that you had been present at the Lincoln-Douglas debate at Freeport, Illinois. Make a report of it to your class. For help see James, *Readings in American History*, 426–434.

References for Teachers.—Macy, *The Antislavery Crusade*, (Chron. of Am.); Hart, *Slavery and Abolition*, IV.–XXI.; T. C. Smith, *Parties and Slavery*, I.–IV., VII.–XX.; Dodd, *Expansion and Conflict*, 161–183, 231–267; Fish, *Development of Am. Nationality*, 290–297, 314–358; Rhodes, *Hist. of the U. S. from the Compromise of 1850*, I.; Sparks, *Men Who Made the Nation*, 378–410; Hart, *Am. Hist. Told by Contemporaries*, IV., 43–150; Bogart, *Economic Hist. of the U. S.*, XXI.; Sparks, *The Expansion of the Am. People*, XXIX.; Stowe, *Uncle Tom's Cabin* (fiction); Hough, *Purchase Price* (fiction).

For Pupils.—Elson, *Side Lights on Am. Hist.*, 263–359; Hart, *Romance of the Civil War*, 1–115; Foote and Skinner, *Makers and Defenders of Am.*, 230–249; Coffin, *Building the Nation*, 282–313, 363–424; Wright, *Children's Stories of Am. Progress*, 159–178; Baldwin, *Four Great Americans*, 187–240.

Fiction: Brooks, *The Boy Settlers;* Page, *In Ole Virginia;* Trowbridge, *Cudjo's Cave.*

CHAPTER XXIV

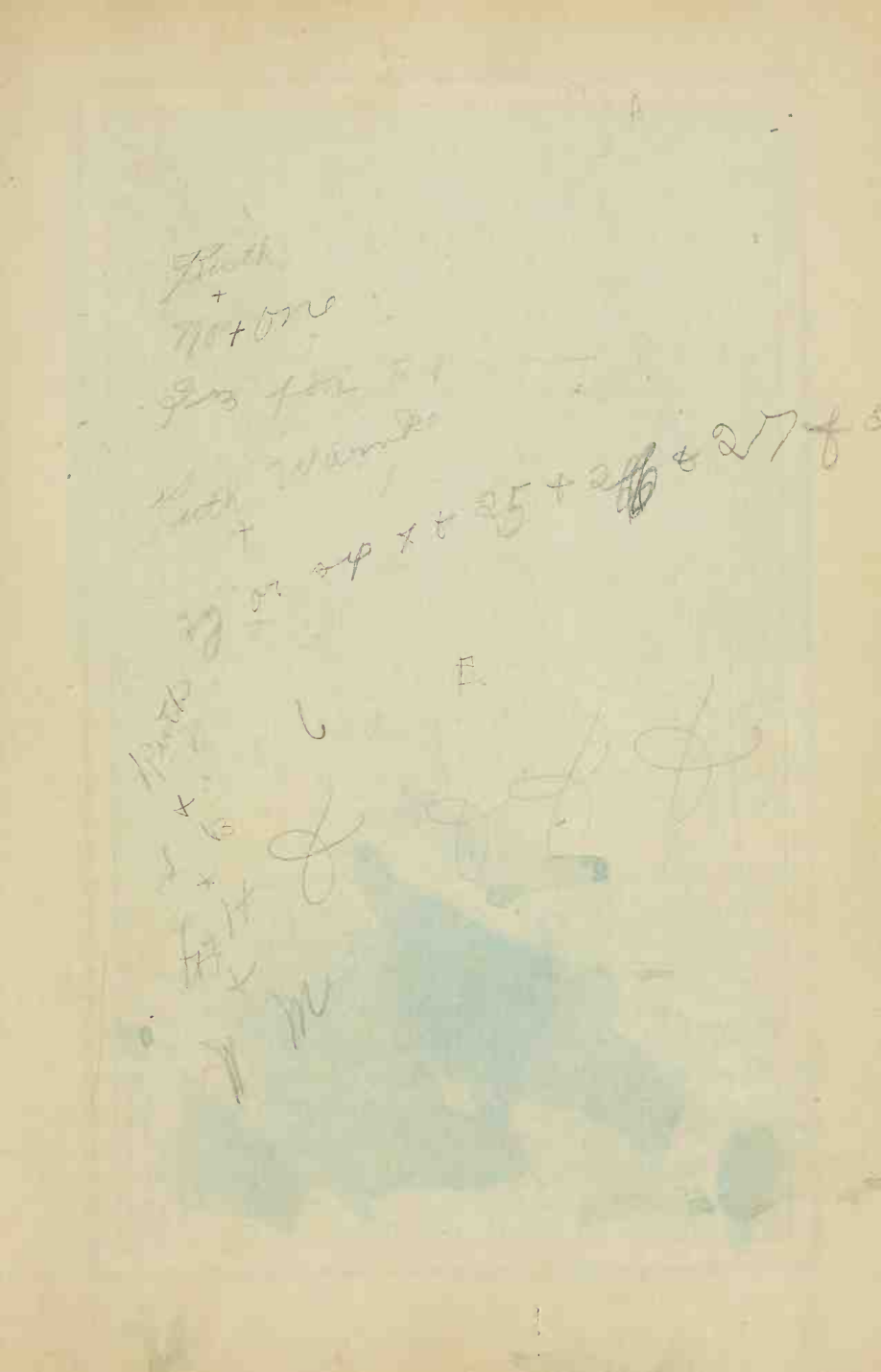
PROGRESS, 1830 TO 1860

The railroad.—The coming of the railroad was an important event in the history of mankind. It is difficult, for instance, to see how the interior of our country could have developed or have remained united under one government if it had not been for the railroad.

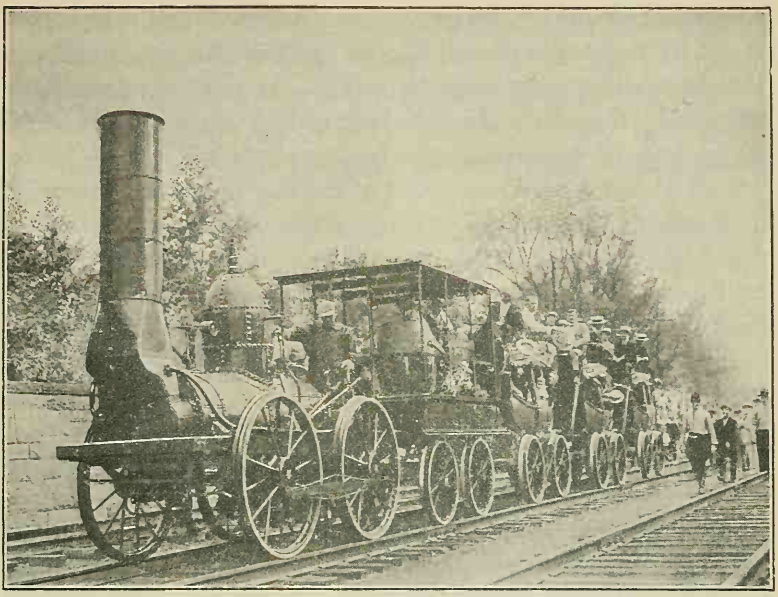
Americans tried various ways of moving passenger cars on rails. They even rigged them like boats, with masts and sails, but the time of their arrival was always uncertain. Horse power was also tried. The horse did not pull the car but rode in it, working a treadmill. George Stephenson (stē′ven-sun), an Englishman, has the honor of inventing the steam locomotive, first called a "traveling engine." He said that he would make it cheaper for even a workman to ride than to walk. In 1825, the year of the opening of the Erie Canal, his locomotives began to haul both passengers and freight on an English railway. The first passenger-and-freight railroad in the United States was the Baltimore and Ohio, part of which was opened for traffic in 1830. One of Stephenson's locomotives was

CAR ON THE CHARLESTON AND HAMBURG RAILROAD IN 1829

It was driven by a horse, working a treadmill; speed, 12 miles an hour.



TRANSPORTATION
IN THE
UNITED STATES, 1850
SCALE OF MILES
0 100 200 300 400 500
Railroads
Canals
Stage lines
Trails
Dates of admission of states and establishment of organized territories after 1830, are indicated thus 1850
BRITISH POSSESSIONS
OREGON TERRITORY
UNORGANIZED
MINNESOTA TERRITORY
UTAH TERRITORY
NEW MEXICO TERRITORY
TEXAS
MEXICO
PACIFIC OCEAN
ATLANTIC OCEAN
Gulf of California
BOUNDARY OF THE UNITED STATES BEFORE 1848
BOUNDARY OF THE UNITED STATES BEFORE 1845
Astoria
Portland
Ft. Vancouver
Ft. Walla Walla
Ft. Boise
Ft. Hall
Ft. Bridger
Salt Lake City
Sutter's Fort (Sacramento)
San Francisco
Ft. Laramie
Ft. Kearney
Pikes Pk.
Bents Fort
Ft. Dodge
Ft. Leavenworth
Ft. Union
Santa Fe
Ft. Gaines
Minneapolis
St. Paul
Prairie du Chien
Dubuque
Des Moines
Iowa City
St. Joseph
Jefferson City
St. Louis
Ft. Smith
Little Rock
Dallas
Austin
Houston
Galveston
San Antonio
Brownsville
Rio Grande
Missouri R.
Columbia R.
Oregon Trail
California Trail
Santa Fe Trail
Mormon Trail
Gila R.
Colorado R.
Nevada
Sierra
Rocky Mts.
Mississippi R.
Ohio R.
Arkansas R.
Red R.
Platte R.
Illinois R.
Milwaukee
Chicago
Detroit
Toledo
Cleveland
Buffalo
Pittsburgh
Cincinnati
Louisville
Nashville
Memphis
Vicksburg
Natchez
New Orleans
Mobile
Pensacola
Tallahassee
St. Augustine
Jacksonville
Savannah
Charleston
Atlanta
Augusta
Columbus
Montgomery
Wilmington
Raleigh
Greensboro
Lynchburg
Richmond
Norfolk
Washington
Baltimore
Philadelphia
New York
Boston
Providence
New Haven
Hartford
Newark
Harrisburg
Wilmington
Albany
Ogdensburg
Portland
Bangor
Montreal
Quebec
Calais
Toronto
Kingston
Lake Ontario
Lake Erie
Lake Michigan
Lake Superior
Lake Huron
Erie Canal
Cumberland Gap
Cumberland Road
Tennessee R.
Savannah R.
Chattanooga
Lexington
Terre Haute
Indianapolis
Springfield
Vandalia
Lasalle
Pontiac
Wheeling
Zanesville
Cumberland
Hagerstown
Lancaster
Susquehanna R.
Delaware R.
Hudson R.
Champlain R.
St. Lawrence R.
BAHAMA IS. (Gr. Brit.)
1848
1849
1850
1845
1837
1838
1840
1836



FIRST STEAM RAILWAY TRAIN RUN ON THE NEW YORK CENTRAL RAILROAD, 1831

Photograph taken in 1921, when this train made an exhibition run. The fuel used was wood. Notice the water barrel on the tender, and the form of the passenger coaches.

imported, and was remodeled to suit American needs. In the first steam railway train used on the New York Central Railroad, the bodies of stagecoaches were used for passenger cars. It made the seventeen-mile trip from Albany to Schenectady, New York, in one hour and seventeen minutes. Fortunately this old train has been preserved, and when it was ninety years old (1921), it made an exhibition run, carrying people dressed in the costume of 1831. One modern locomotive is longer than the entire train.

How a famous man traveled to St. Louis in 1842.—The development of the railroad in America was slow, because it was expensive to build and the distances were great. Most of the early railroads were short and disconnected.

If we follow the great English novelist, Charles Dickens, on his trip from London to St. Louis in 1842, we shall learn how people traveled at that time. He crossed the ocean on a little

side-wheel steamship of twelve hundred tons that was tossed about by the waves almost like an eggshell. He was so seasick that he scarcely cared what happened. To-day we have steamships more than forty times as large, which reach across several waves and are comparatively steady.

Dickens gives a vivid account of the way in which he traveled in America. This was about thirty years after Margaret Dwight made her trip to Ohio (p. 286). If we note how he went from Baltimore to St. Louis, we may be surprised at the number of changes and the difference in modes of transportation.

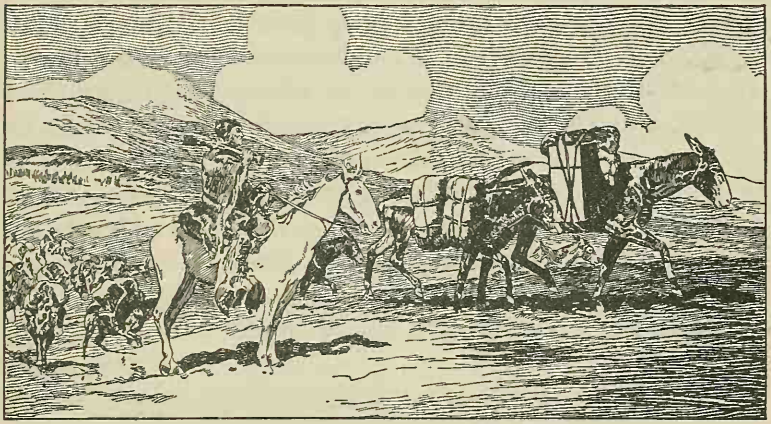
(1) He went a short distance by railroad from Baltimore to York, Pennsylvania. (2) From there he went to Harrisburg in a crowded stagecoach. He says that one half of a passenger sat on him and the other half on the driver. (3) At Harrisburg he took a canal boat to the Allegheny Mountains, which (4) he crossed by ten railway inclined planes. (5) After crossing, he again proceeded by canal to Pittsburgh, which he reached in four days after leaving Harrisburg.

(6) Dickens left Pittsburgh on an Ohio River steamer, bound for Cincinnati. He selected his stateroom in the stern of the boat, "because," he says, "the steamboats generally blew up forward." The trip to Cincinnati required three days. (7) At Cincinnati he changed steamers for Louisville, and met on board a chief of the Choctaw tribe of Indians. To the surprise of Dickens, this red man told how much he enjoyed reading the great battle scene in Scott's *Marmion*. (8) At Louisville Dickens changed steamers again, and after a very uninteresting trip of four days landed in St. Louis.

On this journey from Baltimore to St. Louis in 1842, Dickens made seven changes and traveled by five different types of conveyance—a railroad, a stagecoach, a canalboat, inclined planes over mountains, and a steamboat. Four of these five types would have been new to Margaret Dwight when she took her trip. This comparison shows in a striking way the progress in modes of travel within a third of a century.

Thirteen years later (in 1855), Dickens could have traveled all the way from New York to St. Louis by rail. Had he wished to cross the prairies, he would even then have found no railroad. That did not reach the Missouri River until 1858. No railroad extended beyond the Missouri to the Pacific in this period (1830–1860).

Trails.—Dickens missed unusual experiences by not traveling on any of the great western trails, where he might have had



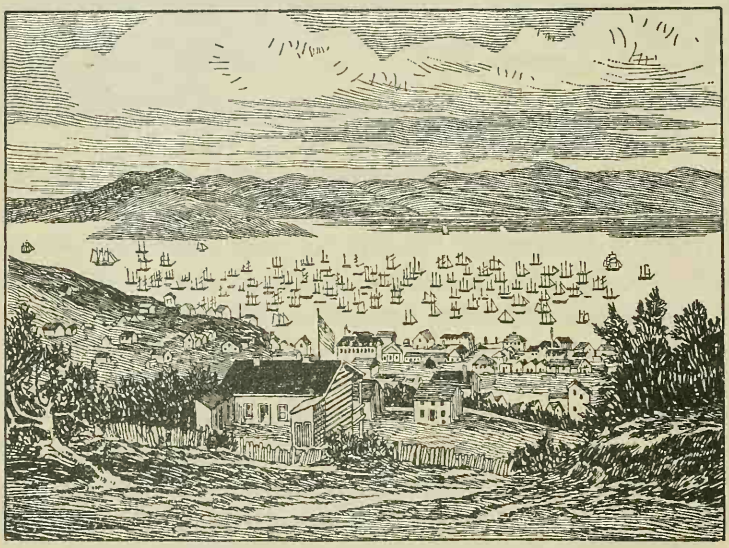
PACK MULES ON THE SANTA FE TRAIL

Trains of pack mules were the first means of transportation over this trail; but they were soon replaced by wagons drawn by mules or oxen.

adventures with Indians. The first of these trails was the Santa Fe Trail (map facing p. 349), about seven hundred miles long, running from the Missouri River to the Mexican town of Santa Fe. Wagons went along this trail loaded with various kinds of cotton cloth, clothing, and light articles, such as pocket knives, mirrors, and ornaments. This traffic would not have been allowed by the Spaniards, but it was common after Mexico became independent. Mexican officials sometimes charged $500 duty on a wagonload of goods brought to Santa Fe. The trade on this trail reminds us of the caravans crossing the Arabian desert before the discovery of America.

The Santa Fe Trail was made for commerce, but the Oregon Trail (p. 332) was used by explorers, pioneers, and home seekers, as well as by fur traders. The Mormons, a religious sect driven out of Illinois in 1845, used the Oregon Trail for a great part of the way on their adventurous journey to their new home by the Great Salt Lake.

The search for gold and its results.—The Oregon Trail became a great highway of travel in 1849, when the throng known as the Forty-Niners rushed to California to search for gold. Beyond the Rocky Mountains they took the California Trail to Sacramento, which was near the gold fields. Other Forty-Niners made the trip to California by sailing around Cape Horn or crossing the Isthmus of Panama. Only a few found enough gold to make them rich, but even if they had found no gold at all, their discoveries would have entitled them to fame. These men ought to be as well known in song and story as the Greek Argonauts for their quest of the Golden Fleece, for the Forty-



San Francisco in 1849

Some ships were unable to sail away because the sailors had deserted to go to the mines.

Niners were the American Argonauts who showed the worth of our far West to the world. In one year after they came, California was made a state. It had then belonged to the United States for only two years. The American Argonauts found their real Golden Fleece in the farms, pastures, herds, orchards, and democratic homes of the sunset land.

The discovery of gold in the mountain streams of California led miners to search such streams from Arizona to Montana. Stories of gold in Colorado, enough for everybody, caused as many as 100,000 "Fifty-Niners" to rush there, ten years after the Forty-Niners had gone to California. "Pikes Peak or Bust" was painted on many a wagon crossing the prairies. The machinery necessary for mining the gold and extracting it from the ore was so expensive that more than half the Fifty-Niners came back. On many a returning wagon might be seen the scrawl "Busted."

This second great rush for gold gave people more knowledge of the interior far West and showed that it was a good place in which to settle. It also made plain the necessity of extending the railroads to the far West.

Inventions for the farm.—It is very costly to build and operate railroads. Before long lines could be built into the West, labor-saving inventions on the farms were needed. Without these, the railroads could not have been supported in the interior of the country. When wheat becomes ripe, it is necessary to cut it and bind it into sheaves quickly. A very hard-working farmer could cut by hand, rake, and bind an acre of wheat in a day. As the harvesting needed to be finished in from five to ten days, a ten-acre field of wheat was too much for one man.

American inventors dreamed of a machine that would reap ten acres in half a day and enable one man to do the work of twenty. Cyrus H. McCormick (1809–1884), a Virginian, was one of the great inventors who labored to make this dream come true. He struggled hard but became bankrupt, and his creditors took all his property except his reaper, which no one

TESTING MCCORMICK'S FIRST REAPER, IN VIRGINIA, 1831

From an old lithograph. In the foreground is a man with a sickle, a hand implement used by reapers. Another hand implement for reaping, invented by Americans, is the cradle, which is a scythe with a light frame to catch the cut grain.

MODERN REAPER AND BINDER

seemed to want. When he had succeeded in inventing practical machines, it took him ten years to sell two at $100 each. But after he left the farms of Virginia, which were often small and hilly, and tried his reaper on the level western prairies, his fortune was soon made.

The credit of this invention, which has cheapened bread for the whole world, belongs to the United States. When this reaper was shown at the International Exhibition in London (1851), the London *Times* said that the introduction of such an invention was worth the whole cost of that great fair. England gave the reaper the grand prize, and France awarded its inventor the Cross of the Legion of Honor.

The reaper filled barns with millions of bushels of wheat, rye, and oats, helped make the farmer independent, and gave the railroads something to carry and the people of the world more to eat. Beside such inventions as those of McCormick and Whitney (p. 303), famous battles seem comparatively unimportant.

A more scientific use of fertilizers and the application of chemistry to agriculture now began to make the soil yield more and so require an increasing amount of machinery. A machine was soon invented which ran an equal race with seventy-five men in threshing grain. Seed drills, improved plows, cultivators, and horse rakes for gathering hay, soon followed. By 1860 the United States was making eighteen million dollars' worth of agricultural implements a year, and it continues to lead the world in their manufacture. Farming machinery made here may be found in countries as far away as Argentina, Australia, and Siberia.

Improvement in communication.— The railroad and the reaper were necessary for progress, but this period saw another invention even more wonderful,—an invention which enabled railroads to be run more safely, the price of wheat and other farm products to be quoted each day in distant markets, and the news of the world to be sent as if by magic to the most remote places.

Samuel F. B. Morse (1791–1872), who became of more use to human beings than Alexander the Great or Julius Cæsar, learned at Yale College the little that was then known about electricity. For a while he was a portrait painter and a professor of art, but he spent all his money and was sometimes half-starved while he was inventing and trying to introduce the magneto-electric telegraph. Finally, Congress gave him $30,000 for constructing a telegraph line between Washington and Baltimore. In 1844, the year before the admission of Texas into the Union, the words "What hath God wrought!" were telegraphed to Baltimore. Morse utilized the discoveries of others as well as his own, and combined them in a practical way. The next sixteen years saw 50,000 miles of telegraph line put up in the United States.

This invention led to a change in the business and life of the world. Europe was quick to see the importance of Morse's work. He was honored by every leading European country. Even the sultan of Turkey sent him a diamond decoration.

Often the most interesting matter in our modern newspapers is supplied by the telegraph. Before this invention, the news in the papers was usually from a week to six months old. The telegraph increased the number, circulation, and influence of newspapers. People wanted to know at once what was happening in all parts of the country. Public opinion was then formed more quickly, and it became more of a power in government.

The Mexican War was the first one reported by telegraph. People then formed the habit of rushing to the newspaper to see what had happened. To-day it surprises us to learn that the news of the battle of New Orleans, fought on January 8, 1815, was not known in Washington until February 4.

The postal service was improved by the extension of railroads. The slow stagecoach and the high rates of postage had discouraged much communication even between people who lived only a short distance from each other. In 1838 the postage was seventeen cents on a letter from Boston to New York. The president of the Boston and Providence Railroad used then to carry a large traveling bag in which to take the letters and small packages of his friends when he made his weekly trips from Boston to New York. In 1851 the postage on letters was lowered to three cents to all parts of the country.

The telegraph, the improvement of the newspaper, and the development of the postal service enabled people to share each other's thoughts more quickly. By linking the various sections more closely together, these three agencies made the rapidly growing country seem smaller.

Progress in other lines.—Two years after the first telegram had been sent from Washington, Elias Howe (1819–1867) patented the first successful sewing machine. His machine won in a race against six women; but as the artisans would not at first

allow him to use such a labor-saving device, he suffered from extreme poverty. He lived, however, to see his income from the royalties on his machine amount to $200,000 a year. This invention cheapened clothing. Whitney, McCormick, and Howe were all inventors who helped furnish a necessity of life at much lower cost.

Millinery and Fancy Store.

MRS. BANISTER, No. 66 Royal street, corner of Bienville, is now receiving direct from Paris, a rich lot of FANCY GOODS, selected by herself from the manufacturers at 30 per cent. less than New York importers dispose of fine goods; consisting of Bonnets, Ribbons, Plumes, Flowers, Mantillas, Cloaks, Robes, Embroideries, rich Silks, embroidered Cashmeres, Parasols, &c. n19—6m

☞ Milliners supplied with extra fine stock.

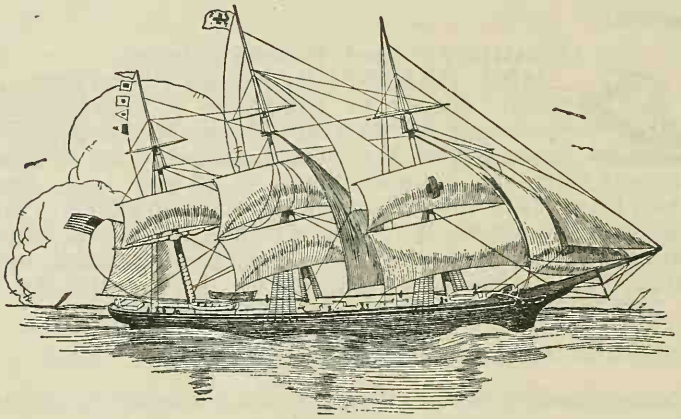
ADVERTISEMENT FROM THE NEW ORLEANS DAILY PICAYUNE, JANUARY 27, 1848

Charles Goodyear also made the world his debtor by discovering how to harden rubber so that it will keep its shape. Rubber overshoes and automobile tires would have been impossible without his discovery. Richard Hoe at the same time invented a cylindrical printing press which in its improved form will print both sides of a roll of paper five miles long at a speed of about a thousand newspapers a minute. This invention was necessary before newspapers could issue large editions rapidly.

Ocean commerce.—The extension of the United States to the Pacific, the improvement in transportation on land and sea, and the new inventions enabled the country to raise more grain and manufacture more articles. More ocean commerce resulted. In this period, our ship tonnage was one third that of the entire world. The total capacity of our ships on sea and river exceeded that of Great Britain.

Shipbuilding was one of the great industries of the nation. American shipbuilders designed the clipper ship, with sharp, gracefully curved bow. The speed of the clippers was so great that they could make three trips across the Atlantic to an Eng-

lishman's two. When the wind was strong and fair, the clippers often sailed past the early steamships. The clippers carried the products of the United States to all parts of the world. They took cotton cloth and other manufactures to India and brought



THE CLIPPER SHIP DREADNAUGHT

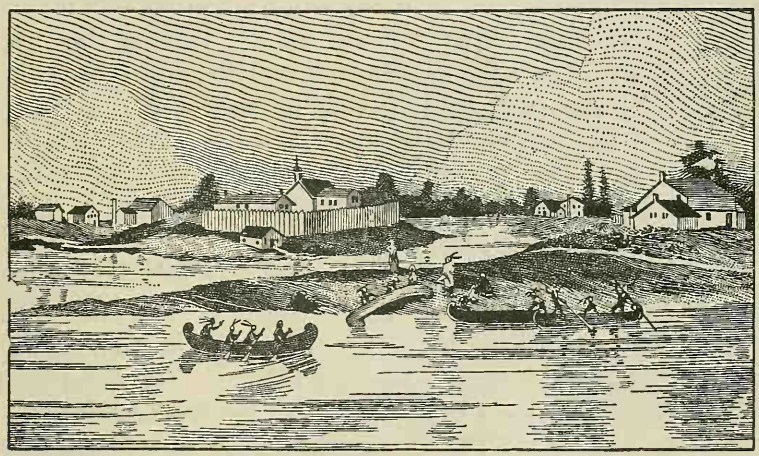
This was one of the fastest and most famous sailing ships ever built. Its record voyage across the Atlantic was made in 13 days and 8 hours.

back tea from China, racing home to see which ship could land the new crop first. In one year they took 12,000,000 yards of cotton cloth to Chile and Peru and returned with copper.

Trade with Japan and China.—After we obtained possession of California and Oregon, it was necessary for the development of our Pacific coast to open trade with the nations across the Pacific. Japan was a hermit nation which traded little with foreigners. We sent a peaceful squadron of eleven vessels there to persuade her to trade with us. The Americans and the Japanese exchanged presents. We gave the Japanese a locomotive, railroad rails, a passenger coach, and two telegraph instruments, and showed them how to use them. These proved a convincing argument, and we secured a treaty (1854) which allowed us to trade with Japan. The Japanese gave us silk and beautifully woven fabrics for the women, and dolls for the

children. The sailors of the fleet were made happy with the present of three hundred chickens. Both nations began trading with the friendliest feelings. We also secured permission to trade with China.

Everybody had a chance.—Foreign commerce and trade at home were now expanding. Farms and their products were increasing faster in this period (1850–1860) than ever before, and the railroad was making them valuable. The wealth of the country was more evenly distributed than later. European travelers said that what impressed them most was "the comparative absence of pauperism."



VIEW OF CHICAGO IN 1818

The site was not laid out into lots until 1830, and many of the lots were sold for less than $200 each.

This period has been called the "golden age of American prosperity when every person had a chance." The foundation of this prosperity was rich government farming land, which was almost given away. One hundred dollars would buy eighty acres of land that would now sell for from $8000 to $80,000. Never again in this world will there be such a chance to become independent through the ownership of land. Every one who wished could become his own master, by owning a farm which

would increase in value with the growth of population and the extension of railroads. A living could be made on the farm while it was increasing in value. More money was made in this period from government lands than from all the gold mines in California and Colorado. Stories rivaling the tales of the Forty-Niners are told of quick profits from land. One morning (in 1836) a poor man bought some land in Chicago for $150, and sold it in the afternoon for $5000.

The westward migration to the new lands was one of the most important facts of this period. Not all, however, could accept the chance of becoming independent which the government lands offered them. Factory hands often became poorer as they grew older. The average factory working day was twelve hours. The bakers in Boston and the rope makers in New York complained that they had to work eighteen hours. It is small wonder that some who had never saved $100 for buying eighty acres, as well as those who wished to get valuable land for nothing, should have begun an agitation to have public land given free to actual settlers.

Immigration.—Travel by steam on both land and water made it easier for immigrants to come to America. For more than a hundred years before 1830, comparatively few immigrants had come—probably less than a third of a million. The parents and grandparents of most of those who signed the Declaration of Independence and framed the Constitution were born in America. From 1830 to 1860 there was a striking increase in immigration. During that period five million immigrants came to America.

Besides the greater ease of travel, the causes of the increased immigration were famines in Ireland, long-continued discontent at tyranny in Germany, the discovery of gold in California, and rich government land. More immigrants came from Ireland than from any other country; Germany sent nearly as many, and England was third. Numbers also came from France, Holland, and Switzerland. The French were so much attracted by the discovery of gold that they sold lottery tickets to get money to

send numbers of their poor people to the United States. The English also paid the passage to America of some who were not making a living. Few immigrants came from the southern and eastern countries of Europe at this time. During forty years (1820–1860), only 17,000 came from Italy, Russia, and Poland.

The Irish usually remained in the cities, Irish and English workers taking the place of most of the American factory hands in New England mills. Many Germans and English became farmers.

Monument in Boston to the Discovery of Anæsthesia

A conqueror of pain.—It seems strange that a country recently expanded to the Pacific, busy with problems of immigration, settlement, transportation, and inventions to increase material wealth, should have been the first to make a practical application of a discovery that opened the way for relieving the agony of human beings in every land. In honor of this important event, Boston has erected a monument with the following inscription:

To commemorate the discovery that the inhaling of ether produces insensibility to pain. First proved to the world at the Massachusetts General Hospital, in Boston, October, A. D. 1846.

It is hard to realize that in all time before this, surgical operations had meant such torture that comparatively few had been

performed. A man with the iron will of an Andrew Jackson might clutch a stick while the surgeon cut out of his shoulder a bullet that was giving him pain (p. 312), but most of us would have let the bullet stay. The most important nineteenth-century discovery for the relief of suffering, and one of the most important in the history of the world, was the use of ether to produce anæsthesia, or insensibility to pain. This discovery enabled surgery to become one of the great arts of the world.

Dr. Crawford W. Long of Georgia first used ether in surgery (1842) but did not publish the fact. Horace Wells, a Connecticut dentist, produced anæsthesia by nitrous oxide gas (1844) and reported the result to Dr. W. T. G. Morton, a Boston dentist. Dr. C. T. Jackson of Boston taught Morton that ether also is an anæsthetic, and Morton used it in dentistry and then administered it in a surgical operation (1846). This operation, proclaimed to the world, caused the general use of ether in surgery.

Health.—There was during this period no such master stride in improving the general health of Americans as in the art of surgery. People had not learned the laws of hygiene, and their health did not equal their general prosperity. Cholera killed nearly five thousand of the Forty-Niners on their way to California. Mosquitoes spread malaria and yellow fever. Flies and impure water and milk caused epidemics of typhoid fever. Homes, as a rule, did not screen against mosquitoes and flies, although the best hospitals did. Little provision was made for ventilation, and the benefits of fresh air were unappreciated.

Travelers from abroad had much to say about the poor health of Americans. The unfortunate American question, "How are you?" often used instead of "Good-morning," afforded a chance to talk about ailments and to make them worse by centering attention on them. A western town gave Daniel Webster a reception in the short time while he was waiting for a change of train. Webster said to the first of a thousand men waiting to be introduced, "How are you?" The man replied, "The truth is, I am not very well. I think it's rheumatiz, but my wife—" The

mayor was then compelled to stop him by introducing the next in line.

American ill health during this period was largely due to bad diet, poor cooking, eating too fast, and excessive use of tobacco and strong drink. "God gave the Americans plenty of good food," said a Frenchman, "but the Devil spoiled it by sending frying pans to cook it in." The American author, Ralph Waldo Emerson, while visiting Great Britain, envied his new friends their good health, and yet he continued to eat pie for breakfast.

Education.—It seems strange to us nowadays to learn that schools did not then teach the care of the teeth, the skin, and the digestion, or impress the necessity of pure air and cleanliness. The common schools at that time taught little else except reading, writing, arithmetic, and geography.

In this period the northern states all had common schools, but they were not all free. Those in the country were in many cases far apart, and the teaching was poor. Horace Mann, secretary of the Massachusetts Board of Education for eleven years (1837–1848), remembered how in his boyhood he could get only six weeks' schooling a year. He determined to see that others had a better chance, and during these eleven years he worked an average of fifteen hours a day, without holidays, to interest people in the public schools. He persuaded them to raise the taxes so that teachers could receive more pay than common laborers. There were at this time theological and medical colleges, but not a single school to train teachers. He had normal schools established for this purpose. The influence of Horace Mann for better schools was felt throughout the United States.

Girls did not yet have the same chance as boys. They could go to the common schools, but only a few high schools were open to them. If girls wanted more education, they were expected to go to private schools. Oberlin College, Ohio, was the first higher institution founded for both men and women (1833).

The number of colleges increased rapidly. Several state universities, such as the University of Michigan (1837), were

founded. The aristocracy of the South believed in a college education for boys, and with about one half as many people as the North it had almost as many students in college.

Religion.—It has been the fashion for Europeans to say that Americans care only for material things. But in reality, next to food and clothing, religion was the most important subject to Americans in this period. The clergy went to the frontier with the zeal of the early missionaries to Indians (p. 130). A story is told to illustrate the keen rivalry between the Methodists and the Baptists in going to new places. A Baptist was determined to reach a settlement first, and so he took the first seat in the front car of the first train over the new track. When he jumped off at the end of the road, he found that a Methodist had ridden in on the cowcatcher. Almost all denominations helped in religious work in the newly settled parts of the country. From one graduating class (1843) of an eastern theological seminary, ten preachers went to Iowa, which was then a thinly settled territory with about 45,000 people, not more than 2000 of whom were members of any church. Since congregations would not come to these young preachers, they went to the people, traveling on foot or along Indian trails.

Most of the western clergy of all denominations were missionaries. Before the frontier had a regular court of law, they preached the law of the Ten Commandments. The influence of religion in support of law and order was an invaluable aid to democracy by making possible a good government by the people.

The world grows kinder.—The spread of the real spirit of religion has made people become gradually kinder and more humane. A study of the lives of two women and the result of their unselfish efforts will help us to understand some of the ways in which this humane feeling expressed itself during this period. Dorothea Dix (1802–1887) was an American girl, born in Maine when Thomas Jefferson was President. The other was an English girl, Florence Nightingale (1820–1910), named from the city of Florence, Italy, in which she was born. These two, on

opposite sides of the Atlantic, showed the new spirit of compassion for the sick and the friendless. Both spent their lives in trying to relieve suffering, and their example still influences the world in its treatment of the sick and unfortunate.

DOROTHEA DIX
From a photograph.

Miss Dix began by teaching poor neglected children; she then visited more than 300 jails, 500 almshouses, and many insane asylums, from Nova Scotia to the Gulf of Mexico, and reported on the conditions she found in them. She became the spokesman of those unfortunates who could not speak for themselves. She found that insane patients were whipped, starved, and chained like beasts, when they needed the utmost care. Her reports aroused the American people and led to improvements in the condition of prisoners, paupers, and the insane. She was the cause of the establishment of twenty insane asylums in states which had none. She then went over a great part of Europe, pleading for better treatment of the insane, the criminal, and the sick. Her influence is said to have caused the establishment of two insane asylums in Japan.

FLORENCE NIGHTINGALE
From a drawing made in 1845.

Florence Nightingale began by bandaging her dolls and caring

for sick animals. She then took a course of training in hospital management in London. During the Crime'an War (1854–1856) she went to Turkey and superintended the hospitals to which the wounded were sent. She sometimes kept on her feet for twenty hours and went through all the wards at night to see that the wounded were receiving attention. Longfellow's poem *Santa Filomena* refers to her work at this time. She was later consulted about caring for the wounded in our Civil War, and her example pointed the way to the modern Red Cross. National Hospital Day is now observed in the United States on May 12, in honor of the birthday of Florence Nightingale, whose work led to improvement in hospitals throughout the world.

The increasing humanity of this age did not at once relieve all needless suffering. Children were sometimes still compelled to work long hours, the helpless poor were often neglected, and criminals were treated like animals. But the appreciation of the work of Miss Dix and Miss Nightingale on both sides of the Atlantic, and the lasting results of what they did, show that the world was growing kinder, and was willing to make its kindness practical. Never before had the condition of the slave roused so much interest in so many people.

Sympathy for animals also increased. A story is told of a family of common people, living near the birthplace of Abraham Lincoln, who left their home and went to a river town. A rise in the river made it necessary for men to come to their home in a boat to save them, but the rescuers insisted on leaving a pet goat to drown. The family would not enter the boat until the poor animal was first taken on board. Individuals had always shown some of this spirit of kindness. Now it increased until, just after the close of this period, societies were organized to prevent cruelty to animals.

Literature.—The thirty years from 1830 to 1860 were the golden age of American literature, as well as a time of great material prosperity. No other thirty years in the history of our country has produced literature equal to that of this period. The

famous *Essays* of Ralph Waldo Emerson (1803–1882) caused people to be more self-reliant and to accomplish more. *Walden*, the greatest work of Henry D. Thoreau (thō'ro, 1817–1862), gives a record of his solitary life in the forest for twenty-six months and still continues to make people love the simple life and the common things of nature. Nathaniel Hawthorne (1804–1864) is one of the great short-story and romance writers of the world. His greatest romances, *The House of the Seven Gables* and *The Scarlet Letter*, and his stories for children in *A Wonder Book* and *Tanglewood Tales*, are still read while books written last year are forgotten. Henry W. Longfellow (1807–1882) is one of the few poets who can tell a story well in verse. Of all poems that tell a story, his *Hiawatha* is probably the one most read by children to-day. His *Evangeline* and *The Courtship of Miles Standish* also tell interesting stories. In *Snow-Bound*, John Greenleaf Whittier (1807–1892) gives a wonderful picture of New England country life in the winter. Two other famous New Englanders, James Russell Lowell (1819–1891) and Oliver Wendell Holmes (hōmz, 1809–1894), were prose writers, poets, and humorists. There are few cultivated people who have not read *The Vision of Sir Launfal* by Lowell and *The Chambered Nautilus* by Holmes. No one in the world has written more melodious poems or more unusual short stories than Edgar Allan Poe (1809–1849), the American author most widely read in Europe.

Ideals of the writers.—The literature of this period was almost as influential as the pulpit in teaching those high aims which are necessary for self-government. Emerson said to the young: "Hitch your wagon to a star." Thoreau wrote: "Be not simply good, be good for something." Lowell gave for an autograph:

"Not failure, but low aim, is crime."

This trumpet call of Holmes still rings in our ears:

"Build thee more stately mansions, O my soul!"

Sidney Lanier (la-nēr′, 1842–1881), a poet of the South, although he came later, belongs in spirit to this group. His lines show the same high moral purpose:

> " By so many roots as the marsh grass sends in the sod,
> I will heartily lay me a-hold on the greatness of God."

A wonderful period.—Those who notice only the political parties, the change in Presidents, the debates in Congress, and the slavery struggle fail to realize the wonderful achievements of our country during this period. It annexed Texas and the lands beyond the Rockies to the Pacific. It even made a state out of part of this new sunset territory in three years. It began the building of railroads and carried them west to the Missouri. It invented machinery that enabled our farms to feed the world, and gave women the speed of fifty hands in clothing it. Its ships led those of every other nation on the highways of the sea. It pointed to the open door of opportunity for all, and immigrants came in throngs. It knocked at the closed gates of Japan and was admitted. It showed older nations how to make the power of the lightning carry messages faster than Shakespeare's Puck, who boasted that he could "put a girdle round about the earth in forty minutes." It lifted a load of pain and disease from the world by showing how to stop the torture from surgery. It helped to make the world kinder. Its poets and prose writers crowned this golden age.

Summary of Points of Emphasis for Review.—(1) The railroad, (2) how Dickens traveled, (3) trails west of the Missouri, (4) result of the search for gold, (5) inventions for the farm, (6) improvements in communication, (7) other inventions, (8) ocean commerce, (9) opening trade with Japan, (10) why everybody had a chance, (11) immigration, (12) surgery, (13) health, (14) education, (15) religion, (16) how the world grew kinder, (17) writers and their ideals, (18) why this was a wonderful period.

Activities.—By drawings on the blackboard, or by pictures, show the development of transportation (a) by land and (b) by water, from the earliest times in America to the present day.

Show on a map Dickens's route from Baltimore to St. Louis in 1842. Make a rough drawing of the various conveyances which he used at each change.

Imagine yourself a Forty-Niner. Write a letter to a friend describing your trip to California and your life in the gold fields. Read *Discovery of Gold in California*, in James, *Readings in American History*, 397–403.

(The teacher may read to the class an account of a trip over the Santa Fe Trail in 1831 and over the Oregon Trail in 1846—both in James, *Readings in American History*. The pupils should then be ready to give a short talk on one of the trails.)

Make a list of reasons to prove that the McCormick reaper is one of the world's great inventions.

Select three other inventions of the period from 1830 to 1860 and explain the importance of each.

Account for the "absence of pauperism" noted by European travelers.

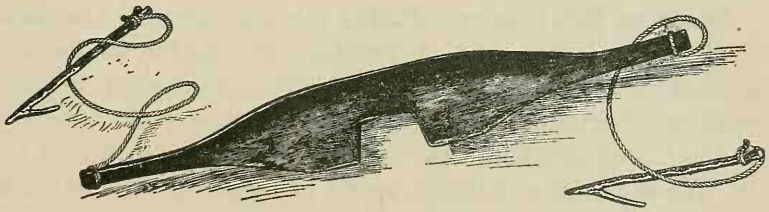
Prepare to talk for four minutes on the subject: Why Patriotic Americans may Feel Proud of this Period.

(The teacher should not leave this remarkable period without reading to the class at least a paragraph of prose or a few lines of poetry from some of the great authors of this period.)

References for Teachers.—McMaster, *Hist. of People of U. S.*, VII.; Dickens, *American Notes;* Dodd, *Expansion and Conflict*, 184–229; Bogart, *Economic Hist. of U. S.*, XVIII., XIX.; Bogart and Thompson, *Readings in the Economic Hist. of U. S.*, XI., XIV., XVI.; Paine, *Old Merchant Marine* (Chron. of Am.), VIII.–X.; White, *The Forty-Niners* (Chron. of Am.); Fish, *Development of Am. Nationality*, 264–289; Halleck, *Hist. Am. Lit.*, IV.–V.; Sparks, *Expansion Am. People*, 249–350; Hart, *Am. Hist. Told by Contemporaries*, III., 471–478, 524–530; Tiffany, *Life of Dorothea Lynde Dix;* Hall, *Florence Nightingale.*

For Pupils.—Bachman, *Great Inventors and Their Inventions;* Wright, *Children's Stories of Am. Progress*, 179–198, 209–228, 278–298; Bolton, *Famous Men of Science*, 202–245; Perry, *Four Am. Inventors*, 133–201; Elson, *Side Lights on Am. Hist.*, I., 241–262; McMurry, *Pioneers of the Rocky Mountains and the West*, IV.

Fiction: Munroe, *The Golden Days of '49*; McNeil, *Boy Forty-Niners;* Aldrich, *Story of a Bad Boy;* Clemens, *Huckleberry Finn* and *Tom Sawyer;* Eggleston, *Hoosier Schoolboy;* Larcom, *New England Girlhood;* Warner, *Being a Boy.*



Yoke for Carrying Pails

CHAPTER XXV

SECESSION AND CIVIL WAR

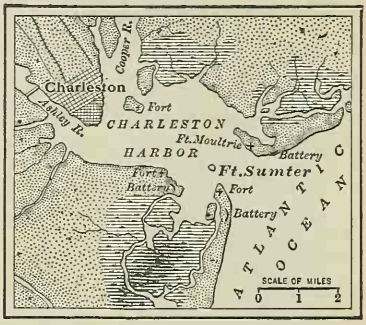
Formation of a Confederacy.—Lincoln was elected in November, 1860, to take office March 4, 1861. Without waiting for his inauguration, South Carolina seceded from the Union the month after he was elected. Mississippi, Florida, Alabama, Georgia, Louisiana, and Texas soon followed the lead of South Carolina. Delegates from six of these seven cotton states met in Montgomery, Alabama, the month before Lincoln was inaugurated, and formed a union of their own, called the Confederate States. Jefferson Davis of Mississippi was chosen President, and Alexander Stephens of Georgia, Vice President. A constitution for the Confederacy was framed, much like that of the United States. Special points of difference were the right of states to secede, tariff for revenue only, and a provision that slavery should be protected in any new territory acquired.

The secession of these seven states did not necessarily mean war, if the North would allow the Union to be dissolved without a struggle. Efforts were made by both sides to avoid a conflict, but neither North nor South would accept the necessary compromises. Lincoln would not agree to a proposal to allow the Union to be dissolved. He said: "The Union of these states is perpetual." He realized that if fugitive slaves escaped from the Confederacy to the North and were not returned, there would soon be war in any case.

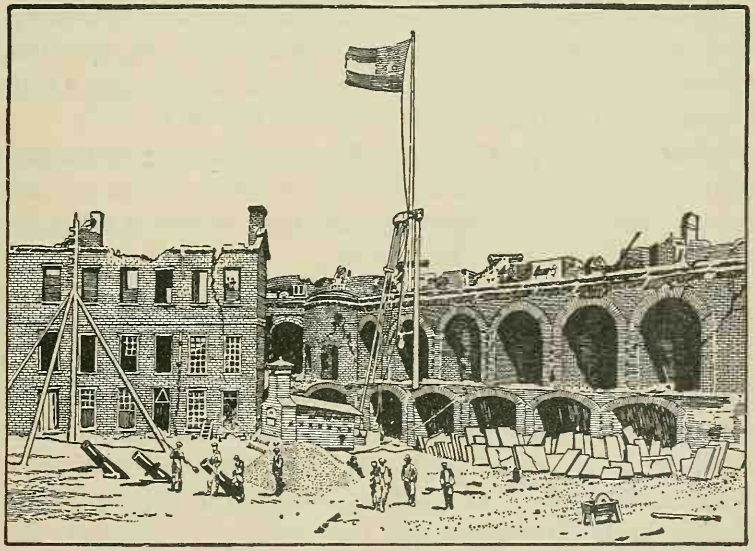
Attack on Fort Sumter.—During the time between Lincoln's election and his inauguration, the states that had seceded seized most of the national forts, arsenals, arms, and shipyards in their territory. Fort Sumter, which was on an island at the entrance to the harbor of Charleston, South Carolina, was still held by its Union garrison. Lincoln would not give up the fort, and

UNITED STATES
1861

when it needed provisions, he notified South Carolina that he would send food there, but no reënforcements or ammunition until further notice. President Davis of the Confederacy then demanded the surrender of the fort. When its commander, Major Robert Anderson, refused to give it up, the Confederates began to bombard it. Anderson defended it for thirty-four hours until the shells of the Confederates set it on fire. He was then forced to give up Fort Sumter. The Union flag was hauled down and that of the Confederacy raised in its place (April 14, 1861).



WHERE THE CIVIL WAR BEGAN



INTERIOR OF FORT SUMTER AFTER THE SURRENDER

Redrawn from a war-time photograph. The Confederate flag is flying from the derrick by which the guns were raised to the upper tier. This flag had seven stars in a blue union, and three bars of red, white, and red. Later Confederate flags had thirteen stars on a narrow diagonal cross.

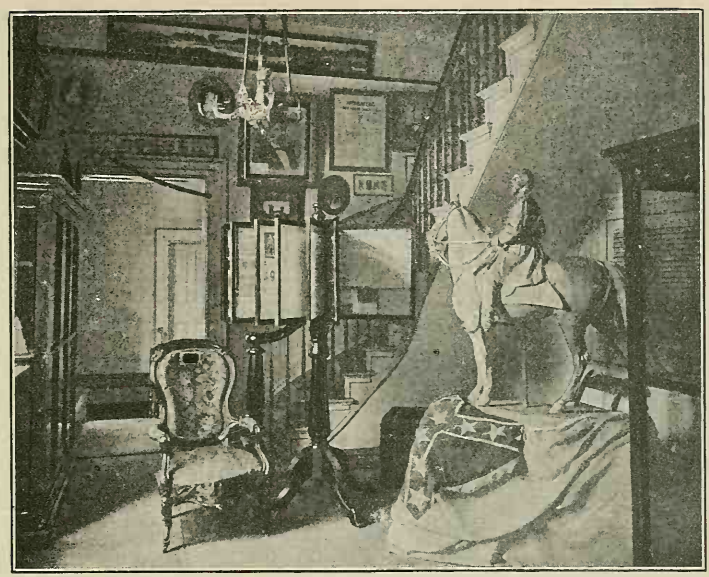
Effect upon the North.—Not a life was lost on either side during the bombardment; yet this was one of the most important battles of the Civil War. A statesman of that time wrote thus of the change that came over the North in a day: "The report of the attack upon Fort Sumter was like an electric shock to a body seemingly dead, but full of vitality. In a day the current of sentiment throughout all of the nonslaveholding states was changed. Men who had denounced coercion at once became its advocates."

Lincoln's call for volunteers.—The leading men of both parties in the North now agreed that the authority of the United States must be enforced and its property recovered. The day after the surrender of Sumter, Lincoln asked the governors of the states for 75,000 soldiers to serve for three months, "to maintain the honor, the integrity, and the existence of our national Union." The response to this call was quick and enthusiastic. Within two days five companies from Pennsylvania reached Washington, and a Massachusetts regiment from Concord, Lexington, and other places in the vicinity of the first battles of the Revolution, was on its way there.

Effect upon the South.—The taking of Sumter seemed a great victory to the South. The Confederate secretary of war said that the new flag "will float over the dome of the old Capitol at Washington before the first of May."

The call of Lincoln for volunteers showed the South that he intended to fight. Southerners said that this call was "diabolical," because they thought that he would try to deprive them of their own chosen free government and to make them obey his will. The idea that he intended to make war on the seceding states caused four more southern states—Arkansas, Virginia, Tennessee, and North Carolina—to join the seven already in the Confederacy. Its capital was changed from Montgomery, Alabama, to Richmond, Virginia.

Jefferson Davis called for 100,000 volunteers. More than that number of the best men of the South offered their services.



TENNESSEE ROOM IN THE CONFEDERATE MUSEUM AT RICHMOND, VIRGINIA

This house, called the White House of the Confederacy, was the residence of President Jefferson Davis. Each of the Confederate States is now represented by one room in it. The equestrian statue seen here is of Nathan B. Forrest, a famous Confederate general from Tennessee.

Reasons given for taking up arms.—Lincoln in his call for volunteers said nothing about attacking slavery. If he had opposed slavery, he would have lost the support of many Democrats in the North and he also would have offended the border slaveholding states which had not yet joined the Confederacy. The preservation of the Union, he said, was his aim in calling for soldiers. Thirty-one years before, Andrew Jackson had said: "Our federal Union! It must be preserved." Lincoln now planned to use the army and navy, if necessary, to preserve it.

The South called for volunteers to enable it to defend its independence. Believing that it had the right to secede, it was willing to fight as hard for that right as the colonies had fought to throw off the yoke of Great Britain. The Southerners said less about preserving negro slavery than about defending their freedom and independence.

While we ought to know the point of view of both the North and the South, we should remember that if there had been no negro slavery, there would have been no war at that time.

Comparative strength of the two sections.—Outside of the uncertain border slave states of Delaware, Maryland, Kentucky, and Missouri, the North had nineteen states with a population of nineteen millions. The eleven states in the Confederacy had a population of nine millions. Three and a half millions of these were slaves, but they raised the food and so made it possible for nearly all the white men to go to war.

If all the soldiers are counted up to the end of the war, the North had the equivalent of three years' service of 1,500,000 men; the South, of 1,000,000 men. All together, the northern soldiers thus outnumbered the southern in the ratio of three to two, but the North needed more men if it was to fight in the enemy's country.

The North had more money and more vessels than the South, as well as two thirds of the railway mileage. It had many factories as well as farms, and it could make its arms and ammunition and build its vessels. The South was mainly agricultural. It had very few factories, and its people were not skilled in the art of making things. Richmond, Virginia, had a street-car track, but war had broken out before the cars were delivered from the North. Since there was no factory in the South that could make them, the line could not be used. Southerners had been in the habit of buying what they wanted from the North and from Europe and paying with cotton. The South was thus in a position to be seriously handicapped by a blockade.

Why the South hoped to win.—(1) The South had reason to think that it would have many sympathizers in the North who would not fight to force the seceding states to return to the Union. (2) The South expected foreign help, because European nations would need its cotton and would object to being deprived of it, if the North tried a blockade. (3) The South also thought that its people would make better fighters than northern men.

Lincoln's cabinet.—Lincoln selected a strong cabinet, who did their work well during the weary years of the war. William H. Seward (p. 341) was Secretary of State. Salmon P. Chase, who had been a United States senator and governor of Ohio, was Secretary of the Treasury. He had the hard task of getting money for the war, which sometimes cost $2,500,000 a day. Lincoln knew that he had been called a "baboon" by Edwin M. Stanton, of Ohio, a Democrat who had been Attorney-General in Buchanan's cabinet, but this fact did not keep Lincoln from making Stanton Secretary of War. Stanton had "a greed for work," and he labored day and night for the success of the war. In Lincoln's treatment of Stanton and Chase, we can see one of the President's great qualities, his power to forgive. Toward the close of Lincoln's first term, Chase tried to get the presidential nomination for himself, but failed. People said to Lincoln: "Now is the time to crush Chase." Lincoln replied, "I am not in favor of crushing anybody." Lincoln admired Chase's ability and appointed him chief justice of the Supreme Court of the United States.

ABRAHAM LINCOLN

Statue by St. Gaudens at Lincoln Park, Chicago. A replica of this statue was placed in front of the Houses of Parliament in London, England, in 1921.

Lincoln chose Democrats as well as Republicans for his cabinet because he wished the support of both parties. He selected a Democrat, Gideon Welles (wĕlz) of Connecticut, a level-headed newspaper editor, for Secretary of the Navy. The navy was well managed throughout the war. The *Diary* of Gideon Welles, published in 1911, gives an interesting account of Lincoln's cabinet, the progress of the war, and the work of the navy.

Northern generals.—Lincoln did not succeed so well with his generals as with his cabinet. During the first two years of the war he was unable to find a general who was a successful chief commander, or anything like a match for the Confederate generals. Lincoln studied military books and tried to learn enough of the art of war to give some advice to his generals. In the first twenty-seven months of the war he changed the commander of the eastern army six times. Worry over his generals caused him sleepless nights and deepened the wrinkles on his face.

The best-known Union general in the first part of the war was George B. McClellan. He was a classmate of the southern general "Stonewall" Jackson at West Point. There is a general agreement that McClellan was a great drillmaster and that in the early days of the war he was remarkably successful in drilling the raw soldiers into fighting shape. At this point agreement about his capabilities ends. Lincoln, Secretary of War Stanton, and a majority of the northern people considered him slow, overcautious, and too much disposed to see a lion in the way.

The great Union leader who finally became the chief commander when the war was more than half over was General Ulysses S. Grant (1822–1885). Born in Ohio, he graduated from West Point twenty-first in a class of thirty-nine, and distinguished himself in the Mexican War. He was self-reliant, ingenious, quick to decide and to move, and a hard fighter. There were no lions in his way. When the mud and rain made marching almost impossible, he said: "They will operate worse on the enemy, if he should come out to meet us, than upon us."

He could keep still under the most trying circumstances. When McClellan was hard pressed in his Richmond campaign, he ended a dispatch to the Secretary of War with this statement: "If I save this army now, I tell you plainly that I owe no thanks to you, or to any other persons in Washington. You have done your best to sacrifice this army." Grant could suffer and remain silent. In spite of Grant's victories, many demanded that Lincoln should dismiss him. They said that he was not temperate. Lincoln finally said to them: "I wish I knew what brand of whisky he drinks; I would send a barrel to all my other generals."

The latter part of the war also brought to notice four other successful Union generals: William T. Sherman, Philip H. Sheridan, George H. Thomas, and George G. Meade.

Southern generals.—The experience of Jefferson Davis, President of the Confederacy, at West Point and in the Mexican War, gave him an advantage over Lincoln in selecting generals. The best military leaders of the South were born in Virginia. They were Robert E. Lee, "Stonewall" Jackson, and Joseph E. Johnston. All were graduates of West Point and all had served in the army of the United States during the Mexican War.

The greatest of all the Confederate generals was Robert E. Lee (1807–1870). Those opposed to him have called him courteous, brave, a general of the first rank, and the soul of honor. He did not use liquor or tobacco. He believed that

STATUE OF GENERAL LEE, IN RICHMOND

"duty" was "the sublimest word" in our language. In the *Idylls of the King* the poet Tennyson calls King Arthur and his knights of the Round Table

> " A glorious company, the flower of men,
> To serve as model for the mighty world,
> And be the fair beginning of a time."

Those who knew Lee felt that he was worthy of a seat at that Round Table. He thought slavery "a moral and political evil," but he believed his first duty was to his own state, Virginia. Lincoln wanted to make him the chief commander of the Union armies, but when Virginia seceded, Lee offered her his services to repel invasion.

The next in fame of the Virginian generals, Thomas J. Jackson, received the name of "Stonewall" in the first great battle of the Civil War (Bull Run) because he stood like a stone wall in the contest. No New England Puritan of the first generation was more strict in matters of religion and morality. The habit of prayer was with him almost as fixed as the habit of breathing. He always prayed before he went into battle. He would not touch liquor, saying that he was more afraid of it than of Federal bullets. No general could fight harder or slip by the enemy more easily, to strike where he was least expected.

The border states.—Lincoln had reason to be anxious about the border slave states—Delaware, Maryland, Kentucky, and Missouri. Blood was shed in Baltimore when sympathizers with slavery attacked Union soldiers on their way to Washington. The Union feeling in Maryland, however, was strong, and with Lincoln's help the state was kept from seceding. The friends of the Union won in Missouri after some bloodshed; the large German population there took the part of the Union. Kentucky was a battle ground for both sides, but it did not secede.

The northwestern counties of Virginia were strongly opposed to secession, and so they separated from Virginia and were admitted to the Union as a new state with the name of West Virginia (1863).

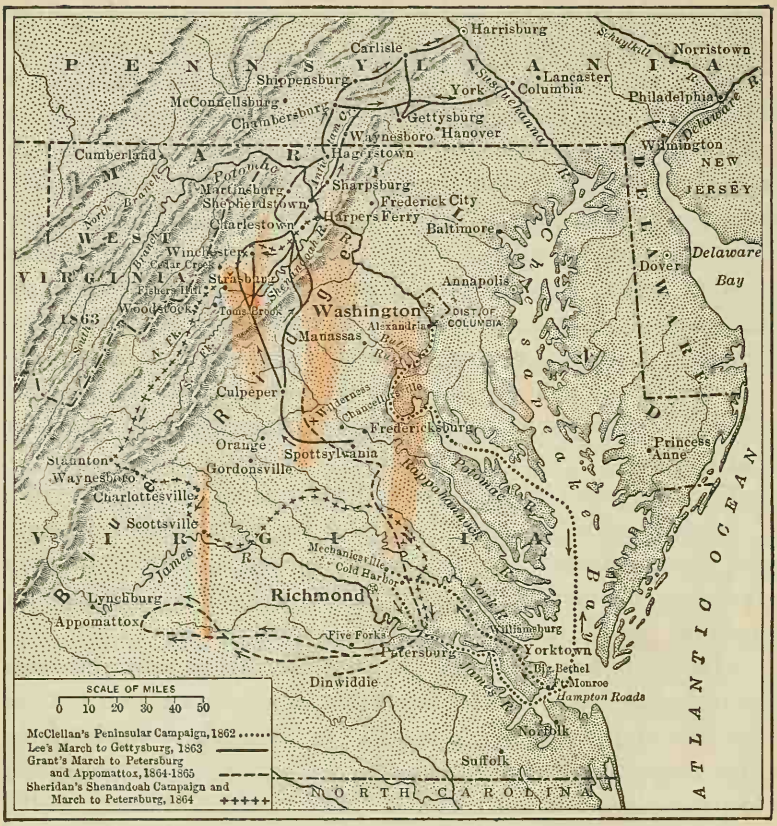
Battle of Bull Run.—Each section wished its army to capture the enemy's capital. The northern cry was "On to Richmond." Public opinion in the North demanded a battle, and Lincoln (July, 1861) sent General Irvin McDowell with an army of about 30,000 men to march south and fight. Many in the North thought the contest could be settled by one battle. McDowell met the Confederates at the little stream of Bull Run, near Manas'sas, thirty miles southwest of Washington. The Union soldiers fought well the greater part of the day, but when an unexpected detachment of the Confederate army, under General Joseph E. Johnston, arrived and attacked them, the Union army fled in a panic and did not stop until it reached Washington. The Confederates captured enough ammunition for another battle.

The defeat at Bull Run (called the battle of Manassas by the Confederates) was perhaps better for the North than a victory, for it showed that the war would be longer than most had thought. The new enlistment of soldiers was for three years or until the end of the war, instead of for ninety days.

McClellan becomes commander.—McClellan won his first laurels by driving the Confederates out of the western part of Virginia and giving West Virginia a chance to separate from Virginia and become a new state. His success there caused him to be made commander of the Army of the Potomac, as the chief eastern Union army was called. Old age compelled General Winfield Scott to resign the position of commander of all the armies (October, 1861), and this position also was given to McClellan.

The new commander, knowing that untrained men are of little use in war, began to drill the newly enlisted soldiers and to organize them into an army. Before the beginning of the second year of the war, he had 150,000 well-drilled soldiers. His opponents also were busy drilling their men.

Northern plans for fighting on land.—Definite plans for the conduct of the war were not made until after the battle of Bull



CIVIL WAR CAMPAIGNS IN THE EAST

Run, because until then the North did not think that there would be much of a war. After that battle the Union armies were set to accomplish four principal tasks:

I. Plans were laid to keep in the Union the border states of Missouri, Kentucky, Maryland, and Delaware, besides West Virginia. These states had slaves, and so the North adopted as its rallying cry "Save the Union" instead of "Destroy slavery." Measures were taken to hold the border states in the Union by force when it became necessary, as in the case of Missouri.

II. An army was formed to operate in Virginia, east of the Appalachian Mountains. It is not necessary to remember all the battles of the Civil War in this region, but we must not lose sight of the central fact that most of them were fought with one object in view—to capture Richmond, the capital of the Confederacy, and to defeat the Confederate armies which defended it. It was also necessary to fight several battles to keep the Confederates from invading the North.

III. Union armies planned to invade the southern states west of the Appalachian Mountains for the purpose of controlling the Mississippi valley and the chief railroad centers of the central South. Such control was necessary to prevent outside supplies from reaching the Confederate armies by way of Mexico, and to make difficult the movement of soldiers and supplies in the Confederacy.

IV. Toward the end of the war, it was planned to drive a wedge through the central part of the South, from Chattanooga to Atlanta and Savannah, and then march against Richmond from the south.

If we keep these four plans in mind, the fighting will not seem so confused and without purpose.

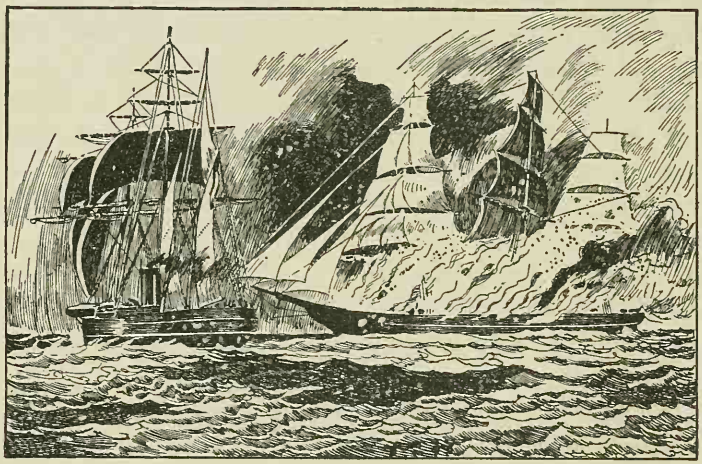
Plans for the navy.—The North also planned to assemble a navy to blockade southern ports, shut out foreign supplies, and help the army where possible. At the beginning of the war, the navy had but twenty-three efficient fighting steam vessels. Only four ships were in northern ports ready for service. After Fort Sumter had been fired on, the North soon had eleven thousand men working to build and repair ships in the navy. Many vessels were bought for blockade duty. Before the end of the first year of the war (1861), it required 22,000 sailors to man the naval vessels of the North.

A coast of 3549 miles, from the Potomac River to the Rio Grande, and 189 harbors or mouths of inlets, needed to be watched. The navy was efficiently managed, and it helped to cripple the South by making it difficult to export cotton or to

bring in arms or other supplies. The navy also supported the army and helped to win the Mississippi valley.

Southern plans.—The South planned to repel attacks by the North, wherever made, to capture Washington, and to make inroads into the North.

In building a navy, the South was no match for the North, which had most of the shipyards and most of the skilled ship-



THE BURNING OF A NORTHERN SHIP BY THE ALABAMA

From a contemporary drawing in *Harper's Weekly*. In accordance with international law, the *Alabama* made ample provision for the safety of the passengers and crew of every ship she destroyed, either taking them to some neutral port or placing them on some ship that was spared. She was sunk in a duel with the *Kearsarge* in June, 1864.

builders in the country. The Norfolk Navy Yard had been seized by the Confederates when Virginia seceded. They thus obtained some needed vessels, many cannon, and much ammunition.

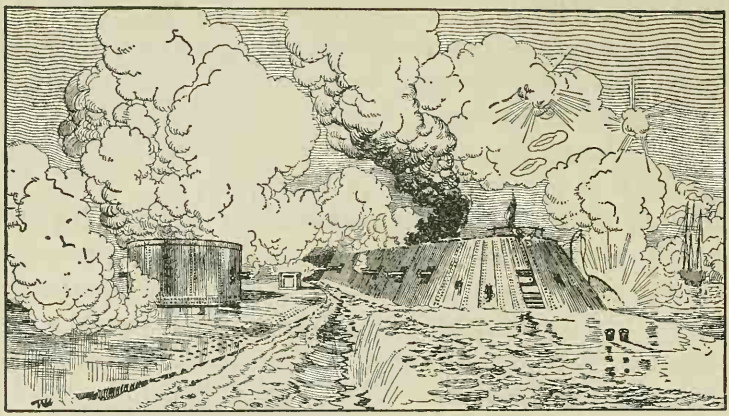
The only fighting ships which the South kept on the ocean were cruisers, built abroad to destroy northern shipping. The most famous of these was the *Alabama*, which roamed the seas and destroyed millions of dollars worth of northern cargoes. The South also had built abroad a number of swift steamers, painted gray, which usually loaded at the Bermuda or Bahama

islands with military stores and other goods. They were often successful in running the blockade in a fog or on dark nights and in returning to Europe with a load of cotton. Towards the end of the war the North tightened its blockade so much that fewer blockade runners got through, and the South suffered from lack of things that could not be supplied at home.

How both sides secured their armies.—At the beginning of the war, all that President Lincoln and President Davis had to do to secure an army was to ask for volunteers. The finest men in both sections came eagerly. Later, when the war became a drag, both sections conscripted men. At the North a conscripted man was allowed to escape service by furnishing money enough to secure a substitute. Men would sometimes accept this money and contrive to escape either on the way to the South or during a battle. Sometimes the same men would enlist again and secure another sum of money, called a "bounty." These were known as "bounty jumpers."

A battle that changed the world's navies.—The floating ironclad batteries used by the French on the Black Sea in attacking Russian forts (1855) gave the Confederates a suggestion for an invention by which they hoped to win the war. They raised the battleship *Merrimac*, which had been sunk by Union orders at the Norfolk Navy Yard when it was abandoned to the Confederates, covered her with a double coating of rolled iron bars, and renamed her the *Virginia*. The moment she could navigate (March 8, 1862), she steamed into Hampton Roads (the broad mouth of the James River) and sank two ships of the Union navy. Their shots rebounded from her sides as if they had been peas fired from a popgun. Darkness and ebb tide alone prevented the destruction of the rest of the fleet that night. The North was panic-stricken. There seemed no reason why the ironclad *Virginia* could not destroy Washington and all the eastern seaport towns.

At sunrise the next morning, the *Virginia* started to destroy the rest of the Union ships, when she was attacked by a queer



BATTLE OF THE MONITOR AND THE VIRGINIA (MERRIMAC)
Redrawn from a war-time sketch. The smokestack of the *Virginia* has been shot away.

object that looked like "a cheese box on a raft." This was the Union ironclad *Monitor*, the work of John Ericsson, a citizen of Swedish birth. She had just arrived from Brooklyn, New York, where she was built. She had only two guns in a revolving iron turret. During a four hours' duel, the two monsters hurled shot after shot at each other without killing a man or causing serious injury to either vessel. The *Virginia* then withdrew to Norfolk, leaking from an unsuccessful attempt to ram the *Monitor*. The "cheese box" had saved the rest of the Union fleet and the northern seaports. This battle caused the abandonment of wooden ships in the world's navies. Great Britain acknowledged that not one of her 147 first-class wooden warships was a match for the *Monitor*.

Neither of the famous ironclads survived the year. The *Virginia* was blown up to keep her from being captured when the Confederates had to abandon Norfolk (May, 1862), and the *Monitor* sank in a storm off Cape Hatteras (December, 1862).

McClellan's Peninsular Campaign.—The repulse of the *Virginia* made it safe for McClellan to take his soldiers by water down the Potomac to the Yorktown peninsula, between the York and James rivers. Lincoln wished McClellan to march

against Richmond by land, but the general thought there were too many rivers to be crossed. Lincoln disappointed him by taking 40,000 of his army to protect Washington. After threatening that city, "Stonewall" Jackson rushed his army to Richmond, making the numbers on both sides nearly even.

This "Peninsular Campaign," as it is often called, resulted in many battles. When Joseph E. Johnston was wounded, General Robert E. Lee succeeded him as commander of the Confederate forces and kept this position until the close of the war. In one week of heavy fighting (June 25 to July 1, 1862), the Confederates lost 27,000 men, or about 5000 more than McClellan; but McClellan's campaign was considered a failure because he did not take Richmond. When it was seen that he could not, he and his army were recalled to Washington, which Lee threatened to attack.

The country realized the need of reënforcements, and furnished Lincoln with nearly half a million more soldiers.

Other fighting in the East.—Before the middle of 1863 four other bloody battles were fought in the East.

I. General John Pope was badly defeated at the second battle of Bull Run (or second Manassas), although reënforced with many of McClellan's troops (August, 1862).

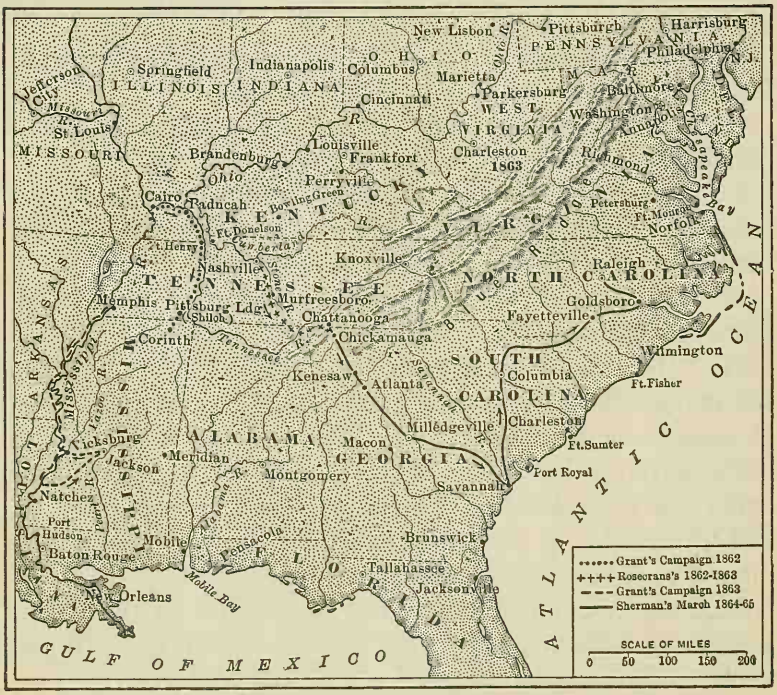
II. Lee invaded Maryland and Pennsylvania. Under him, Stonewall Jackson captured 12,500 Union soldiers at Harpers Ferry. McClellan and Lee then fought the battle of Antietam (an-tē'tam), near Sharpsburg in Maryland, ten miles north of Harpers Ferry (September, 1862). This was the bloodiest single day's battle of the Civil War, the Union loss of 12,000 being about 1000 more than that of the Confederacy. Lee was checked, and his invasion of the North ended for the year; but he was allowed to recross the Potomac almost unmolested.

McClellan's command was taken from him after this battle, because he did not speedily pursue Lee and crush him. He was given no further command during the Civil War.

III. Lincoln selected General Ambrose E. Burnside as the

next commander. At Fredericksburg, Virginia (December, 1862), Burnside attacked Lee's army in its chosen position, protected by a stone wall and by artillery that "combed the field so that a chicken could not have lived there." After losing 12,000 of the flower of the Union army, Burnside had to retreat.

IV. Lincoln cast about for another commander and appointed General Joseph Hooker, who had had experience in the Mexican War. He fought the battle of Chancellorsville, Virginia, against Lee and was badly defeated (May, 1863), although the Union army was much the larger. Southern joy over this great victory was lessened by the fact that Stonewall Jackson, while riding between the lines in the darkness, was fatally wounded by a volley from his own men.



CIVIL WAR CAMPAIGNS IN THE WEST AND SOUTH

MARYE'S HOUSE, ON MARYE'S HEIGHTS, FREDERICKSBURG, VIRGINIA

The severest part of the battle of Fredericksburg was at the stone wall below Marye's Heights. Notice the bullet marks on the columns, still showing in 1864, when this photograph was made. Many southern mansions have porticoes with tall columns like these.

These battles show Lincoln's vain attempts to find a successful Union general. They also explain why many people in Europe thought that the North could never conquer the South.

Fighting in the West.—The South wished to control the Ohio River and the important Cumberland and Tennessee rivers, both of which flow across the southwestern part of Kentucky into the Ohio. Fort Don'elson was built on the Cumberland, and Fort Henry on the Tennessee, where they approach within eleven miles of each other. General U. S. Grant marched with an army to capture these forts and drive a wedge into the South. Union ironclad gunboats took Fort Henry before the army came. Grant then attacked and took Fort Donelson with 12,000 prisoners (February, 1862). This success first called the attention of the North to Grant.

Grant then pushed south to seize Corinth, an important railroad center in northern Mississippi. On his way he was attacked

at Pittsburg Landing (April, 1862) by General Albert Sidney Johnston, an able Confederate commander. In this contest, usually called the battle of Shiloh because it was fought around a church of that name, Grant lost 13,000 killed and wounded, and the Confederates, about 11,000. So many homes in the Northwest lost a father or a son in this battle that public sentiment there demanded the removal of Grant. Lincoln ordered General H. W. Halleck, the head of the western division of the Union forces, to take immediate command of Grant's army.

This army under Halleck, moving very cautiously, took Corinth, a junction point of railroads running east and west and north and south. The Union forces, aided by the navy, then captured Memphis (June, 1862) and held the Mississippi River from that point to its source. An attempt was made by another Union army, commanded by General W. S. Ro'secrans, to drive a wedge through eastern Tennessee to the railroad center of Chattanooga. Rosecrans was stopped for a time by the hard-fought battle of Mur'freesboro, on the Stone River.

In addition to his military genius, Grant had one unusual quality. He could keep still. During the events following Shiloh he was in such a subordinate position that he was "little more than an observer" of the acts of others, but he kept silent. The result was that he was again left in active command of his army about two months after Shiloh. Halleck went to Washington as commander of all the armies of the United States.

The wedge from the South; capture of New Orleans.—The navy found it difficult to blockade all the mouths of the Mississippi River to stop supplies coming to the South from Mexico and Texas. Admiral David G. Far'ragut (1801–1870), a Union officer of southern birth, was selected to take a Union fleet 106 miles up the river to capture New Orleans, the richest city in the South, which supplied southern soldiers with many necessities. The river was defended by forts, ironclad rams, and gunboats. Farragut did not have a single ironclad in his fleet, but he passed the forts at night under a terrible fire, fought his way through fire

ships, rams, and gunboats, and reached New Orleans. He captured the city (April, 1862) and turned it over to General B. F. Butler, who held it with his troops.

Farragut then went up the Mississippi and joined the Union gunboats above Vicksburg, which he found too strong to take with his fleet. The Confederates continued to ship supplies across the Mississippi at Vicksburg and for a distance below it until the next year.

What was accomplished in the first two years of the war, 1861, 1862.—Many in the North thought that little worth while had been accomplished, and they made their opinion known in the elections for Congress in the fall of 1862. The Republicans lost seven of the most important states in the North, including Pennsylvania and New York. The vote was considered a censure of Lincoln, his party, and the conduct of the war. Eminent men said that Lincoln was "a good Western jury lawyer, but a calamity where he is." Richmond, so near Washington, had not been captured. The North had lost more men than the South. No Union general had yet been tested who had proved a match for Lee. Late in 1862, Gladstone of the British cabinet declared in a public speech: "We may anticipate with certainty the success of the Southern States."

In reality, the North had done more than many thought. It had (1) drilled a fine army; (2) saved for the Union four border slaveholding states (Delaware, Maryland, Kentucky, Missouri) and a part of a fifth (West Virginia); (3) enlarged her navy, repulsed the *Merrimac*, and tightened the blockade; (4) secured control of the Tennessee and Cumberland rivers and of the Mississippi above Vicksburg; (5) driven a wedge into the Mississippi valley and crippled its railway transportation; and (6) closed the lower Mississippi and captured New Orleans.

Summary of Points of Emphasis for Review.—(1) Formation of a Confederacy, (2) effect of capture of Fort Sumter on North and on South, (3) reasons for fighting, (4) comparative strength of the North and South, (5) Lincoln's cabinet, (6) leading generals in the war, (7) border states,

(8) battle of Bull Run, (9) northern and southern plans for the war, (10) how the armies were secured, (11) *Merrimac* and *Monitor*, (12) Peninsular Campaign, (13) change of generals in the East and result, (14) fighting in the West, appearance of Grant, (15) what the two southern wedges accomplished, (16) dissatisfaction in the North over the result of the first two years of war.

Activities.—Draw a map of the United States. Show by the use of different colors (a) the Confederacy, (b) the Union, (c) the border states, and mark Charleston, Fort Sumter, Bull Run (Manassas), Washington, Richmond.

In one hundred words write a comparison of the resources and advantages of the North and the South.

Write a news item such as might have appeared in a northern newspaper just after the battle between the *Monitor* and the *Merrimac*. For additional information the teacher should read to the class *The Little Monitor and the Merrimac* by Charles Martin (1862) in Hart's *Romance of the Civil War*, 352–358.

Draw a map of Virginia, Maryland, and the District of Columbia. Mark on the map the chief rivers of Virginia. Locate McClellan's Peninsular Campaign, Washington, Richmond, Bull Run (Manassas), Antietam (Sharpsburg), Fredericksburg, Chancellorsville, and the place where the *Merrimac* and the *Monitor* fought.

Draw a map showing where the war in the West was waged. Locate the Cumberland and Tennessee rivers, Forts Henry and Donelson, Shiloh (Pittsburg Landing), Corinth, Chattanooga, Murfreesboro (Stone River), Memphis, Vicksburg, New Orleans, Mississippi River. Show by arrows the direction of three attempted wedges.

Write a summary in fifty words of what was accomplished during the first two years of the war. What were the two most important successes of the North? of the South?

References for Teachers.—Fish, *Development of Am. Nationality*, 360–405; Rhodes, *Hist. of U. S. from Compromise of 1850*, Vols. III., IV., V., or his one volume, *Hist. of Civil War;* Stephenson, *Abraham Lincoln and the Union*, and *Day of the Confederacy* (Chron. of Amer.); Hosmer, *Appeal to Arms;* Dodge, *Bird's-eye View of Our Civil War; Diary of Gideon Welles*, Vols. I., II.; Hart, *Am. Hist. Told by Contemporaries*, IV.

For Pupils.—Nicolay, *Boys' Life of Abraham Lincoln;* Hart, *Romance of the Civil War;* Blaisdell, *Stories of the Civil War;* Foote and Skinner, *Makers and Defenders of Am.;* Coffin, *Boys of '61*; Barstow, *Civil War;* Beebe, *Four Am. Naval Heroes;* Lodge and Roosevelt, *Hero Tales from Am. Hist.*

Fiction: Fox, *Little Shepherd of Kingdom Come;* Benson, *Who Goes There?* Crane, *The Red Badge of Courage;* Barnes, *Son of Light-Horse Harry;* Page, *Two Little Confederates*, and *Among the Camps;* Frederic, *The Copperhead;* Brady, *Little Traitor to the South;* Drinkwater, *Abraham Lincoln* (a play).

CHAPTER XXVI

PROGRESS OF THE CIVIL WAR

Difference between life in the North and in the South.—During the war, life and business went on more nearly as usual in the North than in the South. The three and one-half million slaves in the South tilled the soil, attended to the animals, and made it possible for nearly the entire fighting strength of the Confederacy between the ages of seventeen and fifty to be on the battle line. The larger population in the North and the necessity for more white people to stay at home to provide the army with food and supplies explains why many families there had no member at the front. In the South most of the white families were in mourning as the war progressed.

The North could sell its surplus crops in Europe and buy both necessities and luxuries. The South had to go without many things needed in everyday life. Drug stores could not fill prescriptions unless persons had their own bottles. Common medicines, such as quinine, sometimes could not be secured. Once a plumed hearse, followed by mourners, was allowed to pass the Union lines at Memphis. The guards had no suspicion that the coffin was filled with needed medicines. An almanac for 1863 could not be printed in Charleston for lack of paper.

Women and the war.—The southern women often managed the negroes and the plantations because, as General Grant said, "the Confederate army has robbed the cradle and the grave." The South had few factories, and the Union blockade shut out the common household necessities. The women made homespun for the southern soldiers. Even bandages for the wounded had to be made of homespun. The southern army could not have kept the field so long if it had not been for the ceaseless work of the women and their able management of affairs at home.

The women in the North, also, had to help make clothing for their soldiers. In a small Illinois town, a letter was read in a church one winter morning, saying that some of the soldiers from that state had no stockings. The next day the women knitted 275 pairs and sent them to the front. The improved sewing machine now came into common use in the North and enabled women to make garments faster than ever before. Besides, the North poured so many soldiers into the South that the wives and children of farmers were often left to till and harvest the crops. An Iowa missionary wrote: "I saw more women than men working in the fields. They seem to have said to their husbands, in the language of a favorite song:

FASHIONS OF THE CIVIL WAR PERIOD

Hoop skirts were worn for many years in the middle part of the nineteenth century. Styles of hats were subject then, as now, to frequent change.

"'Just take your gun and go,
For Ruth can drive the oxen, John,
And I can use the hoe.'"

In both the North and the South women raised money for the wounded and gave their services as nurses. Neither side could have carried on the war so successfully without the unselfish help of women.

Influence of railroads on the war.—The greater proportion of miles of usable railroad in the North also helped to make life more endurable there than in the South. It was much easier in

the North to bring necessities and luxuries where they were needed. The Compromise of 1850 was really a truce in the interest of the North, for it put off the war for eleven years and gave the North a chance to extend its railroads. Chicago was not reached by rail from the East until 1853; the Mississippi, not until 1854; and the Missouri, not until 1858. When Lincoln was elected in 1860, the country had 30,000 miles of railroad, more than three times as much as it had ten years before. If it had not been for the railroads, much of the West would have had no market for its grain and meat unless it remained friendly with the South and sent its produce down the Mississippi River, as in former days. If the crops had rotted without a market, it would have been difficult to convince the West that a long war was reasonable. The extension of the east-and-west railroads enabled the people of the North to have common interests. The West was therefore willing to help the East win the war.

The South had fewer railroads, and these were soon in poor condition because nearly all the material for repairs was made in the North. An Englishman said that travel over some of the southern railroads was almost as dangerous as fighting the enemy. Parts of the South frequently suffered from hunger when there was plenty of food in other places. A Union army in Mississippi ate so many chickens, ducks, and turkeys that it became tired of them and wanted bacon.

How money was raised to carry on the war.—The North had to raise nearly three and a half billion dollars to pay for the four years of the war. The Congress of the United States tried four ways of obtaining this money. It (1) raised the duty on imported articles, (2) levied a tax on incomes of $600 and over, (3) issued paper money, and (4) sold bonds. The paper money was called "greenbacks" because the back of the bills was printed in green ink. A greenback was simply a note, or a promise to pay, given by the government in order to borrow money without interest. So much paper money was issued that a dollar of it became worth less than fifty cents in gold. This inflation more than doubled the

price of things. The United States also issued interest-bearing bonds. These were promises to pay back borrowed money with interest. At first it was not easy to sell the bonds, and they did not bring their full face value. The Secretary of the Treasury threatened, if he could get money in no other way, to print so many greenbacks that a breakfast would cost a thousand dollars. Jay Cooke, a patriotic young Philadelphia banker, helped the government dispose of its bonds. He printed millions of posters, circulars, and advertisements, calling attention to the attractiveness of the bonds, and he was successful in selling them. In all the previous history of the world, no people had ever subscribed to so large a government loan as the Union required during the Civil War.

A demand for many bonds was created by establishing a system of national banks. These banks were permitted to issue bank notes to an amount nearly equal to the amount of bonds purchased. At the same time state bank notes were taxed and so driven out of use.

The Confederacy also issued paper money and sold as many bonds as possible to banks and private citizens. French bankers bought $15,000,000 of Confederate bonds, payable in cotton at twelve cents a pound. The Confederacy did not tax the people at first, for fear of making the war unpopular, but it turned out vast amounts of paper money, and the separate states did likewise.

This inflation of the currency was bad for the character of the people, both North and South, for it set them to speculating; that is, trying to get money without earning it. They bought foodstuffs, wool, and other necessary things, intending to sell them at a higher price. This speculation did not produce a bushel of wheat or a pound of wool. At Richmond, Virginia, a newspaper said: "Everybody is swindling everybody else." Flour in the South finally cost $1000 a barrel, and firewood $5 a stick. This southern paper money reminds us of the continental currency (p. 191), for it was "not worth a continental" when the

war ended. Even the bonds of the Confederacy had no value when it was conquered. The United States later redeemed its greenbacks in gold and paid off its bonds, but the poor suffered much from the inflated paper money, although some profiteers made large fortunes. It was not until after the war that the word "millionaire" came into common use.

United States Sanitary Commission.—There were, meanwhile, men and women who were mindful of the example of Florence Nightingale (p. 366), and who could think of things more important than speculation. Such people started the United States Sanitary Commission, to care for the wounded and the sick in the war. There was then no Red Cross, but delegates from this Commission had the honor of convincing an International Conference at Gene'va, Switzerland (1864), that an international Red Cross was necessary. The outcome was the Treaty of Geneva, known as the Red Cross Treaty.

The Sanitary Commission had its own nurses, doctors, medical supplies, and wagons. At the battle of Antietam (1862), ten thousand wounded soldiers were lying in the woods and fields, "without any adequate supply of surgeons, and with not a tenth part of needed medical stores, which were locked up in the block of the railway between Baltimore and the battlefield." It was then shown how superior a privately managed organization could be in caring for the wounded. Four days passed before the government supplies reached the battlefield, but the Sanitary Commission had foreseen the need of supplies near that place, and four-horse teams, drawing wagons loaded with the proper stores, had been driven to the vicinity of the conflict. People shuddered to think what the wounded would have suffered if they had been compelled to lie there helpless for four days until government relief came.

Before the battle of Antietam, it had seemed as if the Sanitary Commission must disband for want of funds. Two days after the battle, the first large subscription of $100,000 came by telegraph from San Francisco. After the other great battles, money

SUPPLY WAGONS OF THE UNION ARMY

From a photograph of 1864. It was wagons like these that were used by the Sanitary Commission after the battle of Antietam and other battles.

and supplies poured in. Fairs were held in many cities to raise money. The fairs in New York and Philadelphia brought $1,000,000 each. The Sanitary Commission gave $25,000,000 worth of service to the soldiers in the Civil War. We should remember this charity because it directly prepared the way for the Red Cross, the greatest Good Samaritan organization of modern times.

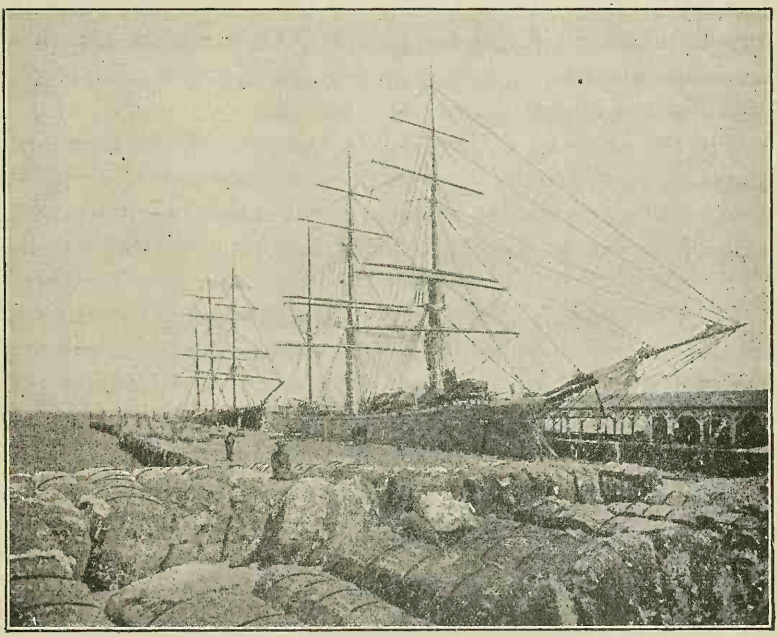
Foreign affairs.—The North had to contend with trouble abroad, as well as at home. It did not at first succeed in persuading the British government to be watchful enough to stop British shipbuilders and shipowners from supplying the South with cruisers to destroy the shipping of the Union. The *Alabama,* one of these cruisers, sailed the ocean for two years, sinking Union vessels and their valuable cargoes.

The North usually managed its foreign affairs well, but early in the war a Federal captain made the mistake of forcibly

removing two Confederate envoys from the *Trent*, a British steamer. When Great Britain demanded their release, Lincoln sensibly gave them up on the ground that the British were merely complaining of the same treatment that we had objected to before the War of 1812.

During the first two years of the war neither Great Britain nor France thought that the North could subdue the South. Both of these nations rightly felt that this war did not concern the United States alone. War hurts other nations besides those engaged in fighting. Let us see how our Civil War harmed Europe, three thousand miles distant.

The cotton factory workers in England were idle because they could not get raw cotton, and they would have starved if their government had not fed them. In one district in France, 100,000



COTTON WHARF AT CHARLESTON, SOUTH CAROLINA

From a war-time photograph. Only a small part of the cotton crop could be exported from the South during the Civil War, by way of Mexico or by means of swift ships that evaded the blockade.

cotton factory operatives were out of work. If Great Britain and France had recognized the independence of the Confederacy, they could have had cotton, because their navies would have been strong enough to break the blockade of Southern ports. The South could have obtained both money and many needed supplies, and might have secured its independence. The majority of the English people, including even the hungry workers, kept the government of Great Britain from recognizing the independence of the Confederacy. The world has never appreciated the heroism of these British workers. They were willing to go hungry in order to free the slave. At the beginning of the third year of the war, Lincoln made a proclamation which increased their determination to continue to endure their suffering.

The Emancipation Proclamation.—Historians have called January 1, 1863, one of the twenty most important dates in American history (Appendix, p. xxiv). On this date Lincoln's Emancipation Proclamation was declared effective. This proclamation was in part as follows:

"On the first day of January, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and sixty-three, all persons held as slaves within any state or designated part of the state, the people whereof shall be in rebellion against the United States, shall be then, thenceforward, and forever free."

The Constitution gave Lincoln no right to free the slaves. He said that he issued his proclamation on the ground of military necessity. The slaves were not only raising the food for the South, so that the white men could go to war, but they were also working on intrenchments, and driving teams with provisions and ammunition for the army. This was the first notice to the world that the war would be waged against human slavery as well as for the preservation of the Union.

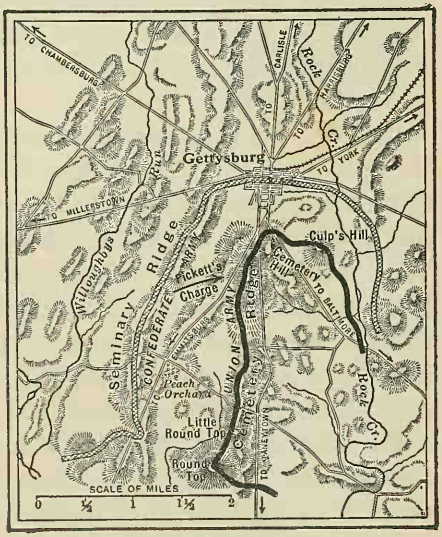
After the Emancipation Proclamation showed clearly that the war was aimed at slavery, the North gained more friends abroad. C. H. Spurgeon, a famous English preacher, after reading this proclamation, said in a prayer before his great congregation:

"Bondage and the lash can claim no sympathy from us. God bless and strengthen the North; give victory to their arms." The congregation answered, "Amen."

Battle of Gettysburg.—The year of the Emancipation Proclamation marked the high tide of the Confederacy. At this time Lee had reason to think that no northern army could conquer his men. McClellan, Pope, Burnside, and Hooker had failed. Lee, with a fighting force only a little more than half the size of Hooker's, had recently defeated him (p. 386). It seemed to Lee that the people of the North would now be willing to make peace if he brought the horrors of war to their doors.

Hooker was still in command when Lee's army started to invade Pennsylvania, but while the northern army was on the march, Lincoln appointed General George G. Meade in place of Hooker.

A detachment of Lee's forces captured York, Pennsylvania, and advanced to within a few miles of Harrisburg, the most northern point reached by Lee's army (map, p. 380). The Union and Confederate armies met in battle at Gettysburg, Pennsylvania. Let us try to picture the battlefield. South of Gettysburg is a range of hills, shaped somewhat like a fish-hook, the shank, known as Cemetery Ridge, pointing south. Near the south end of the shank are two elevations, called Round Top and Little Round Top. The bend of the hook is at the north end of the shank and curves to the east, ending

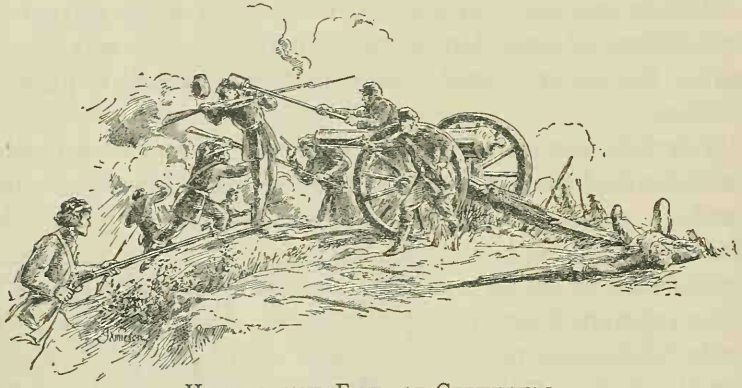


BATTLE OF GETTYSBURG

in Culp's Hill. Outside the bend of the hook is the town of Gettysburg. The Union army fortified itself on this fishhook of hills. Its problem was to hold this position, for after the first day Meade determined to let Lee make the attack.

About a mile to the west of Cemetery Ridge is a parallel elevation, called Seminary Ridge. Lee held this and extended his line through the town of Gettysburg and outside of the curve of the fishhook to the east.

The battle lasted three days (July 1, 2, 3, 1863). The first day, the Confederates drove the Union forces from the west and north of Gettysburg to Cemetery Ridge. The second day the



HAND-TO-HAND FIGHT AT GETTYSBURG
In the second day's battle. From a war-time sketch.

Confederates defeated a detachment of the Union army in a peach orchard west of the south end of the shank of the hook. There was then a fierce struggle for Little Round Top, but the Union forces held it. This attack was planned to cripple Meade's left wing. An attack on his right wing gave the Confederates a foothold on Culp's Hill, the barb of the hook, from which they were driven the next morning.

The result of the fighting on the first two days was generally in favor of the Confederates, although Lee had failed to seize either the right or the left end of the Union position. He resolved on the third day to break through the center, somewhat as a foot-

ball captain, failing to circle the opposing line, tries a plunge through it. The Union leaders guessed what he would do and massed their forces at the center.

At one o'clock on the afternoon of the third day, Lee's artillery began to bombard the Union forces on Cemetery Ridge. Two hours later, thinking that he had silenced the Union batteries, Lee ordered the greatest charge of the war. General Pickett led 15,000 Confederates across the valley from Seminary Ridge and up the side of Cemetery Ridge, but the Union cannon now came into action again and mowed them down like grass. A small force reached the top of the hill and planted the Confederate flag there, but they were at once overpowered.

The battle of Gettysburg, one of the decisive battles of history, ended on the third day with the defeat of Lee. He slowly withdrew from the field and, as after Antietam, recrossed the Potomac almost unmolested. The Confederates lost nearly one third of their force of 75,000, while the Union army of 93,000 lost one man in four.

A few months later, at the dedication of a part of this battlefield as a cemetery for those who fell there, Lincoln delivered his *Gettysburg Address*, which ranks among the greatest orations of all time.

The fall of Vicksburg.—The three places which the North thought most important to capture were (1) Richmond, (2) Vicksburg, and (3) Chattanooga. The first two years of the war had closed with nearly two hundred miles of the Mississippi, from Vicksburg to Port Hudson, still in the hands of the Confederates (map, p. 386). Supplies from the Southwest and imports from Mexico were brought across the Mississippi between these points.

Vicksburg, situated on a high bluff on the Mississippi, was almost a Gibraltar. Grant tried to take it from the north, but the Yaz'oo River, which flows into the Mississippi above Vicksburg, protected the town from an attack on that side. To avoid the strong position of the enemy northeast of Vicksburg, Grant

decided to cross to the west bank of the Mississippi with his army, go south of Vicksburg, recross and take up his position on the east side of the city. In doing this he was hindered by streams, bayous, dense growth, and swamps. An Irish soldier in his army said that even the dry land was often under water.

In nineteen days after recrossing to the eastern bank of the Mississippi, Grant fought and won five battles and took 6000 prisoners. When the enemy forces in his vicinity outnumbered him, he attacked them separately before they could combine.

He twice tried unsuccessfully to take Vicksburg by storm. He then settled down to a forty-seven day siege. During this time, Union gunboats dropped shells into the city night and day, forcing many of the citizens to live underground.

On July 4, 1863, the day after Lee's defeat at Gettysburg, Vicksburg surrendered to Grant with the defending army of 31,600 men, and about 60,000 muskets, most of which had been brought from Europe in spite of the blockade, and were superior to the Union arms. Port Hudson surrendered five days later. From that time the North never lost control of the Mississippi, from its source to its mouth. It then became less difficult to keep the South from getting foreign supplies.

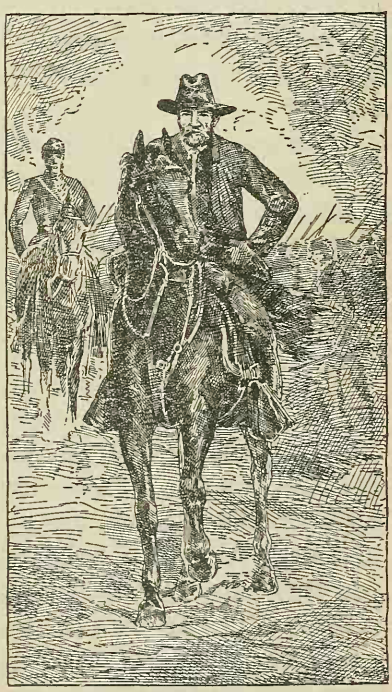
Battle of Chickamauga.—There were two reasons why it was desirable to capture Chattanooga. (1) It was an important railway center and gateway to the South, and (2) a large population opposed to slavery lived among the Appalachian Mountains, from Virginia to Georgia. Some parts of eastern Tennessee and western North Carolina gave a larger percentage of soldiers to the North than the most patriotic counties of New England. The capture of Chattanooga would help protect the families of these men and render Knoxville safe from attack.

We have seen (p. 388) that the battle of Murfreesboro stopped General Rosecrans in his advance. Not until Vicksburg had fallen did he succeed in taking Chattanooga. He then met General Bragg's army of Confederates (September, 1863) at Chickamauga Creek, twelve miles south of Chattanooga, and was

defeated after three days of hard fighting, in which the combined loss of the two armies was 33,000 out of 121,000 engaged.

The Union forces would have suffered a worse defeat if General George H. Thomas, afterward called the "Rock of Chickamauga," had not made a heroic stand with the left wing and held back the Confederates while the main body of the Union army retreated to Chattanooga. After this battle the command of the army was taken from Rosecrans and given to Thomas.

The Confederates driven from Chattanooga.—As a result of the battle of Chickamauga, the Union army was cooped up in Chattanooga by the Confederates and in danger of being starved into surrender. Grant, who had now been made commander of all the armies in the West, came to Chattanooga and took command. Under him were such able generals as George H. Thomas, William T. Sherman, and Philip H. Sheridan. In the hard battle which followed under Grant's command, the Confederates were defeated; they retreated into Georgia. Most of Tennessee was now held by the Union, and Chattanooga became a base from which a Union army could invade Georgia.



GENERAL GRANT
From a sketch made from life in 1864

Grant against Lee in the East.—After his success at Chattanooga, Grant was made lieutenant general and put in command of all the Union armies. He left the western forces in charge of Sherman and went east to lead in person against Lee. Grant

fought the battle of the Wilderness (May, 1864) against Lee in a rough wooded section sixty miles north of Richmond. The Union advance was blocked by Lee, but Grant fought battle after battle with the grit of a bulldog. His hammering campaign against Lee lasted for more than a month, in which time the Union loss was 55,000 men, almost as many as Lee had in his army. After Grant found that Lee's defenses were too strong to be taken by storm from the north, he laid siege to Petersburg, twenty-two miles south of Richmond. He knew that if he captured Petersburg, he would be able to march on Richmond from the south without the hindrance of swamps and rivers. This siege lasted until the following spring.

Dissatisfaction with Lincoln.—A long war is seldom popular. In 1864, after three years of conflict, no end was in sight. Grant had lost half his army fighting Lee and needed reënforcements. When Lincoln called for them, many said that he ought to make peace with the South.

Lincoln was renominated for the presidency, but in August, 1864, the war outlook was so discouraging that prominent men said that he ought to withdraw and allow another man to be nominated. Lincoln himself thought it probable that he would not be reëlected.

Victories for the North.—The three men who made the strongest appeal for Lincoln's reëlection argued by deeds, not words. These men were Admiral Farragut, General William T. Sherman, and General Philip H. Sheridan.

In August, 1864, Farragut dashed with his fleet into Mobile Bay amid exploding torpedoes and hostile ironclads and captured the last valuable harbor held by the Confederacy on the Gulf of Mexico. Mobile was no longer available for blockade running.

In May, 1864, Sherman had started from Chattanooga with an army of 99,000 for Atlanta, a great depot of supplies for the Confederacy. On September 3, Lincoln received a dispatch saying that Sherman had captured Atlanta with all its stores. Lincoln immediately proclaimed that the next Sunday should be

a day of thanks to the Supreme Being for the victory of the fleet in Mobile Bay and of the army in Georgia.

In the fall, before the election, General Sheridan defeated the Confederates in several battles in the fertile Shenandoah valley, Virginia, which had furnished supplies for Lee's army. Sheridan destroyed all supplies in it, so that "a crow passing through it would have had to carry his rations with him"; he then joined Grant in front of Petersburg. T. B. Read's poem, *Sheridan's Ride*, was read throughout the North and proved excellent campaign literature for Lincoln.

Lincoln was reëlected (November, 1864) over his Democratic opponent, General McClellan. Lincoln received 212 electoral votes to McClellan's 21. The common people had never forsaken Lincoln, even in the darkest days.

Sherman's march to the sea.—After taking Atlanta, Sherman sent Thomas back to Tennessee to look after the enemy there. Thomas almost destroyed the western Confederate army at Nashville (December, 1864). In November, 1864, Sherman with an army of 62,000 started on his march from Atlanta to the sea. He had no supply trains and lived by foraging on the country. On Christmas Eve Lincoln received this telegram from Sherman: "I beg to present to you as a Christmas gift the city of Savannah with 150 heavy guns and plenty of ammunition and also about 25,000 bales of cotton." In February (1865) Sherman marched north toward Richmond, to join Grant.

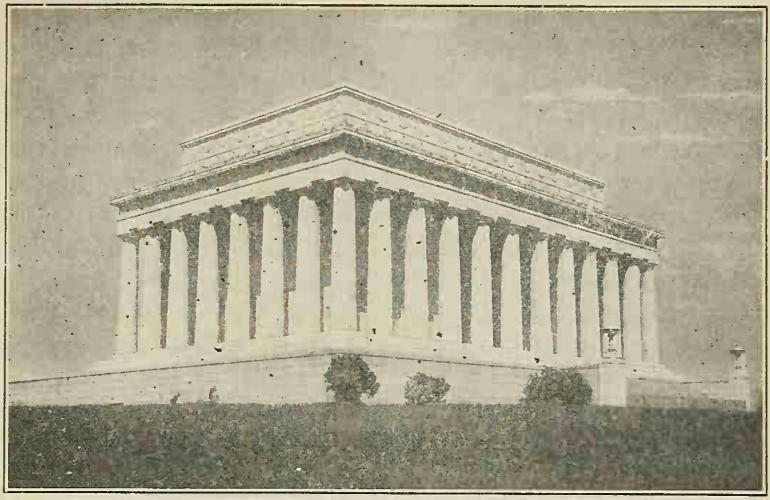
Lee surrenders; the close of the war.—In April, 1865, Grant captured Petersburg, and Lee could no longer hold Richmond. He tried to escape to the west, but part of Grant's army, under Sheridan, blocked the way. On April 9, 1865, Lee surrendered his army to Grant at Appomattox. Grant at once permitted the men and officers to go home, on their word of honor that they would not again fight the Union. He even allowed those who had horses to keep them, saying that they would be needed for the spring plowing. He would not take Lee's sword, and he forbade his soldiers to fire salutes to celebrate the victory.

SHARING RATIONS AFTER APPOMATTOX

From a sketch made at the time. The Union soldiers wear caps; the Confederates, broad-brimmed hats. Lee's supplies having been intercepted, some of his men had been without rations for a day or two before the surrender.

Sherman did not need to hurry to Richmond, for the four years' war soon came to an end. Both sections had struggled heroically for what they thought was right. Northern and southern mothers had lost their sons in the war, and for a long time each had bitter feelings toward the opposing section. To-day North and South are proud of the heroism displayed on both sides and are trying to remember their common aims and forget the discords of the past.

Assassination of Lincoln.—On April 14 Lincoln held his last cabinet meeting, at which he said: "I hope there will be no persecution, no bloody work after the war is over. No one need expect me to take any part in hanging or killing those men, even the worst of them." That evening, with Mrs. Lincoln, he went to Ford's Theater, Washington, to try to forget his cares. An actor of southern birth, insanely angry at the triumph of the North, stealthily entered Lincoln's box and fired a bullet into his brain. Lincoln died the next morning without regaining consciousness. "Now he belongs to the ages," said Secretary of War Stanton when Lincoln ceased to breathe.



THE LINCOLN MEMORIAL, WASHINGTON, D. C.

This beautiful building on the bank of the Potomac was dedicated May 30, 1922. It contains a statue of Lincoln, and memorials of his famous *Gettysburg Address* and his *Second Inaugural Address*. The colonnade surrounding the walls contains thirty-six columns, one for each state in existence at the time of Lincoln's death. Above are forty-eight memorial festoons, one for each of the states in 1922.

Lincoln's character.—Lincoln's most striking qualities were common sense, honesty, kindliness, and a forgiving disposition. The last paragraph of his *Second Inaugural Address* begins: "With malice toward none; with charity for all." His kindliness and his power to forgive touched the sympathetic heart of the world. More than half a century after Lincoln's death, a Roumanian said to an American traveler: "Abraham Lincoln belongs to Roumania as much as to America. There are few Roumanian children who do not know the story of his life. He has made us feel that we have a right to be free and that, like him, we ought to do something to prove the worth of freedom."

The cost of the war.—Nearly 700,000 men, the flower of both sections of the nation, had perished in this war. The loss of those lives can never be made good. The sorrow caused in northern and southern homes cannot be measured.

Although the national government spent about three and one half billion dollars, in addition to what was given by

the states, we are not yet through paying the cost of the Civil War. We have already paid in pensions alone more than the first cost of the war. It would have been cheaper to free the slaves by paying full value for them. War has proved to be a wasteful, as well as a most cruel, way of settling a dispute.

Two great results of the war.—I. The war established the principle that no state can secede from the Union. This principle was necessary for the safety of all the states. Otherwise, states or sections might fall a prey to foreign nations or might often engage in war with each other.

II. Human slavery was soon stopped. In this respect, the United States did what other civilized nations had already done, although on a smaller scale, without war.

Summary of Points of Emphasis for Review.—(1) Difference between war-time conditions in the two sections, (2) railroads and the war, (3) raising money for the war, (4) effects of inflation, (5) Sanitary Commission, (6) foreign affairs, (7) why Great Britain and France wished the war to end, (8) attitude of the English factory workers, (9) Emancipation Proclamation, (10) battle of Gettysburg, (11) Grant takes Vicksburg, (12) Chickamauga and Chattanooga, (13) Grant's campaign against Lee, (14) why there was doubt of Lincoln's reëlection, (15) victories of Farragut, Sherman, and Sheridan, (16) Sherman's march to the sea, (17) surrender of Lee, (18) assassination of Lincoln, (19) his character, (20) cost of the war, (21) two great results.

Activities.—Draw a map of the southern states and of that part of Pennsylvania necessary to show the "high tide of the Confederacy." Locate Gettysburg, Richmond, the Wilderness, Cold Harbor, Fredericksburg, Shenandoah River, Vicksburg, Port Hudson, New Orleans, Chattanooga, Knoxville, Atlanta, Savannah, Charleston, Appomattox.

Give a three-minute talk on differences between living conditions in the North and in the South during the Civil War.

Draw a rough map of the battle of Gettysburg, or model it in sand.

Read Lincoln's *Gettysburg Address* and count the words in it. Why is length not necessary for a good speech?

Read Whitman's *O Captain, My Captain!*

Read Louisa M. Alcott's *A Nurse's Experience* and *In the Hospital* (both in Hart's *Romance of the Civil War*, 399–406). Explain how the United States Sanitary Commission led to the formation of the Red Cross.

Give a short talk on money, prices, and profiteering during the Civil War.

In five minutes tell the most important events in the Civil War.

References.—See end of preceding chapter.

CHAPTER XXVII

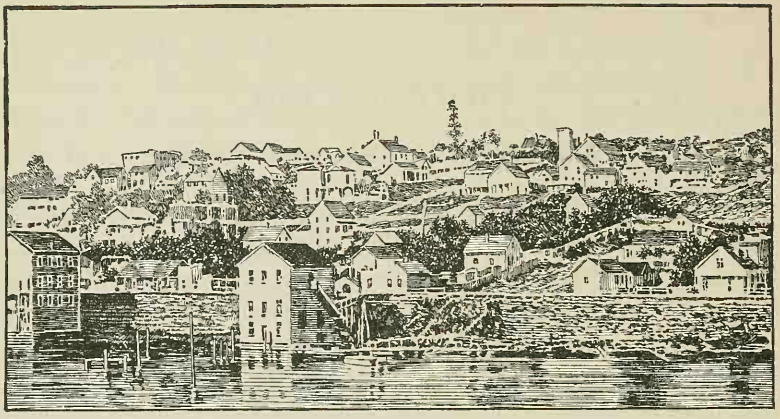
RECONSTRUCTION, 1865 TO 1877

The United States upholds the Monroe Doctrine.—In the year of the outbreak of the Civil War (1861), Great Britain, France, and Spain sent an armed force to Mexico to hold her seaports until she had paid her debts. Great Britain and Spain soon withdrew, but the French emperor, wishing to found an empire in the New World, made Maximilian, an Austrian prince, emperor of Mexico and kept a French army there to support him. This violated the Monroe Doctrine, but the United States could do nothing but protest while she was engaged in the Civil War.

Vice President Andrew Johnson of Tennessee became President on the death of Lincoln. When peace came, Johnson and Secretary of State Seward did brilliant work in upholding the Monroe Doctrine without becoming engaged in war with France. After sending an army to Texas, they prevailed on Napoleon III, the French emperor, to withdraw his soldiers (1867) from Mexico. Maximilian, unable to maintain his authority, was captured by the Mexicans and shot.

Purchase of Alaska.—The purchase of Alaska (1867) was another triumph for the Johnson administration. The United States paid Russia only $7,200,000 for the 590,000 square miles of Alaska. Critics said that we had bought a worthless refrigerator and complained of the price, which was at the rate of almost two cents an acre, and which nearly equaled the cost of three days of war.

Some who remembered the purchase of Alaska lived to see the time when for five years an average of $18,000,000 a year was taken from her gold mines. Her forests, fisheries, agricultural lands, and coal are each worth more than the original



EARLY VIEW OF SEATTLE, FROM THE WATER FRONT ON PUGET SOUND

purchase price. The trade with Alaska has also helped to develop the Northwest and such cities as Seattle and Tacoma.

Reconstruction a difficult problem.—Johnson was more successful in dealing with France and Russia than in solving the great problem of reconstruction at home. Reconstruction meant the changes necessary to fit the South to take its proper place in the Union. If there had been only white people in the South, the problem of reuniting the two sections might have been comparatively easy. The greatest part of the difficulty was due to the fact that more than three million negroes were freed and left in the South. They had not been prepared for freedom. They had worked under masters who ordered every movement. How to give them their freedom, how to enable them to use it wisely, and how to see that they kept it, proved a hard problem, which has not yet been successfully solved.

Two plans of reconstruction.—There were two plans for the reconstruction of the South: (1) the presidential plan and (2) the congressional plan. The struggle between the President and Congress over these plans was the most bitter in the political history of the country and led to the first and only attempt to remove a President of the United States from office by impeachment.

The presidential plan had been suggested by Lincoln. During the war he offered "self-reconstruction" to any state that had seceded when one tenth (or more) of its qualified voters took the oath of loyalty and agreed to obey the laws and proclamations about slavery. Enough voters in Tennessee, Arkansas, and Louisiana accepted this presidental plan of reconstruction, and Lincoln recognized the new state governments thus set up. The enemies of the plan called it "ten per cent government."

When Johnson became President, he followed Lincoln's plan. Before Congress met in December, 1865, every one of the states that had seceded, except Texas, was reconstructed according to the presidential plan. They chose senators and representatives who were ready to enter Congress in December, 1865.

Why Congress now opposed the President's plan.—Before Congress met, the Mississippi legislature passed what has been called the "Black Code." This law would not allow the negro to own or to hire farm land. If he was not actually working for some one, he could be arrested as a vagrant, fined, and his services sold to some white man to pay the fine. Later, other southern states also passed laws that seemed to the North to make compulsory labor the normal condition of the negro.

The North thought that the South intended to pass unfair laws against negroes and then convict them of the crime of breaking them so as to be able to continue slavery under the form of law. Wendell Phillips was delivering a lecture which he called "The South Victorious." The North was becoming alarmed.

By the Constitution of the United States, each house of Congress is given the power to decide disputes in regard to the election and qualifications of its members. Both the Senate and the House of Representatives now refused to admit the newly elected members from the South. Congress was angry with the President because he wanted to decide who should be admitted to its membership, and it determined to have a plan of reconstruction of its own.

The congressional plan.—This plan called for the passage of national laws and amendments to the Constitution to give the negroes the rights of citizens. Congress passed laws which Johnson vetoed. He then made an appeal for the presidential plan in a series of speeches on a tour through the country. But the next election sent to Congress enough members in favor of the congressional plan to pass the laws over the President's veto.

The three reconstruction amendments.—The Thirteenth Amendment (adopted in December, 1865) forbade slavery anywhere in the United States or in any other place subject to its government. This amendment made slavery unlawful but did not give citizenship to the negro. The Fourteenth Amendment (1868) made the negro a citizen and forbade the passage of laws that did not give equal protection to all citizens.

Neither of these two amendments gave the negro the right to vote. When the Civil War began, only six states, New York and five New England states, allowed the negroes to vote. Connecticut had refused to give them this privilege at the fall election after the close of the war. The Fifteenth Amendment, the last of the reconstruction amendments (1870), declared that the right of citizens to vote should not be denied by the United States or by any state on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude.

The South placed under military rule.—Tennessee was the only southern state that promptly accepted the Fourteenth Amendment. Congress became angry and put the rest of the southern states under military government until they should hold an election and accept the Fourteenth Amendment. To vote in this election, every white voter was required to take an oath that he had not borne arms against the United States. In this way the best part of those who had favored the Confederacy were excluded. The negroes were allowed to vote. Northern soldiers saw that these election laws were enforced. Enough southern states were carried in this way to make the necessary

three fourths of all the states required for the adoption (July, 1868) of the Fourteenth Amendment to the Constitution. Besides Tennessee, six other southern states were readmitted to representation in Congress before 1869.

Misery of the South.—During these reconstruction days many in the South said that they suffered more than during the war. The condition of the South was pitiable. Much of the wealth had been in slaves who were no longer the property of their former owners. Nearly everybody was in mourning and poor. Women who had been wealthy were cooking, sewing, and sometimes doing the family washing.

Many negroes who had cultivated the plantations and raised the food either left them and went to some town or would not labor regularly. At first the South did not see how it could exist unless it forced them to work. For this reason it passed laws which made the North think that the South was determined to keep the negro enslaved. The South thought that such laws were necessary to bridge the chasm between slavery and freedom.

Efforts to help the negro.—The former slave was in a pitiable condition to be thrown on the world to make his living. He often thought that freedom meant idleness. From the talk of some of the northern whites the story was started that southern estates would be divided and that each negro would get forty acres and a mule. The negroes could not read and some, it is said, bought bogus deeds or claims to the expected forty acres.

Congress formed an organization, known as the Freedmen's Bureau, that tried in various ways to guide, protect, and educate the negroes, but such work required time. The negroes often made the task difficult by leaving the plantations and going to the towns to enjoy their freedom. Many of them were soon starving, and the bureau had to feed them. This encouraged laziness.

Some of the leading men in the South were as anxious as those in the North to improve the negro's condition. Alexander H. Stephens, Vice President of the Confederacy, said to the Georgia

legislature after the war: "The negroes cultivated your fields, ministered to your personal wants and comforts, nursed and reared your children; and even in the hour of danger and peril, they were in the main true to you and yours. To them we owe a debt of gratitude as well as acts of kindness. They are poor, untutored, uninformed, many of them helpless, liable to be imposed upon; legislation should ever look at the protection of the weak against the strong." Under his influence, Georgia passed a law to protect negroes.

How the reconstruction governments became unbearable.— The states that had seceded were reorganized for their own government and for admission to the Union by only a fraction of the vote of the South. The Fourteenth Amendment and acts of Congress kept the southern leaders from taking any part in the government for several years.

There were three classes of men, all calling themselves Republicans, who controlled the reconstruction governments: (1) those who came from the North, nicknamed "carpetbaggers" by their enemies, who said they brought all their possessions with them in a small traveling bag (picture, p. 310); (2) a small number of native whites, called "scalawags" by their opponents; and (3) the negroes. Some of the "carpetbaggers" were men of character who wished to serve the South, but they were more often mere fortune seekers.

The negroes became the tools of dishonest politicians. In some of the states the government became corrupt almost beyond belief. Those who used the ballot paid few taxes and did not hesitate to vote enormous appropriations for railroads and other improvements. Much of this money was stolen.

Some of the states became almost bankrupt. North Carolina's taxes were four times what they were in 1860, and her debt was increased by $27,000,000; but she afterward repudiated her reconstruction bonds and has never paid them.

These reconstruction governments could not have been maintained if Federal troops had not been kept in the South.

Ku Klux Klan.—In an endeavor to stop this misgovernment, southern white men made use of secret organizations. The best known of these was called the Ku Klux Klan (started in 1866). The members wore a white mask, high cardboard hats, and a long gown. They rode forth at midnight, "when churchyards yawn," on masked horses shod with felt. Their object was threefold: (1) to scare the negroes so that they would not vote, (2) to make them obedient when asked to work, and (3) to make objectionable whites and negroes stop their political activities. Mysterious warnings decorated with skull, coffin, and crossbones were given to individuals. If the warning was not heeded the individual was sometimes whipped, maimed, or killed.

In many places the Ku Klux and other such organizations terrified the negroes so that they would not vote. Southerners had found a powerful weapon which they used for several years to set at naught the congressional policy of reconstruction. Sooner or later the Democrats recovered control of every southern state government, the last of them in 1877.

How things might have been worse.—James Ford Rhodes, the great historian of this period, criticizes the mistakes of President Johnson and of Congress in dealing with the South. He then says: "But the common sense of the American people saved them from crowning blunders. They confiscated (practically) none of the land of their prostrate foe; they hanged nobody for a political crime. These are grand results, furnishing a new chapter in the world's history. Never before on the signal failure of so great an attempt at revolution had a complete victory been attended with no proscriptions, no confiscation of land, no putting of men to death."

Effort to remove Johnson.—Johnson had made the North very angry by his stand on reconstruction (p. 412). Early in life he had been a poor tailor, used to speaking his mind. When Congress set aside his reconstruction plan, he said what he thought of that body in the fashion "of a stump speaker of the border." After one of his speeches a humorist said: "The

whole country held its nose as one man." His administration would have been more successful if he had possessed Lincoln's tact and knowledge of human nature, yet Johnson had his good qualities. Many of his recommendations were sensible, and he chose good advisers. He was incorruptibly honest, and he even returned a horse and carriage that had been presented to him. Men knew that he would have given his life for the Union.

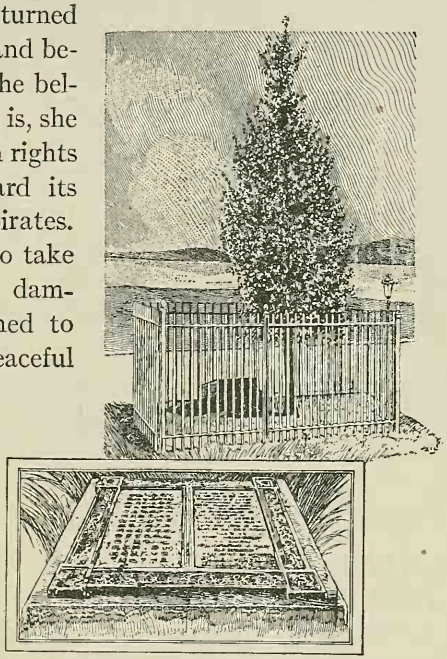
Johnson had kept most of Lincoln's cabinet, but he wished to dismiss Stanton, the Secretary of War. Former Presidents had dismissed cabinet members at will, but now Congress passed a law forbidding such dismissal without the consent of the Senate. In order to bring the case before the Supreme Court for a decision in regard to the constitutionality of the law, Johnson dismissed Stanton. The House of Representatives then moved to impeach the President for "high crimes and misdemeanors" in office. The Senate sat as a jury, and the vote for conviction was thirty-five ayes to nineteen noes. This was less than the two-thirds vote necessary for conviction,—fortunately so, in the opinion of most historians, for the removal of a President because Congress disliked him would have set a dangerous example.

Election of General Grant.—Soon after Johnson was acquitted, Grant became the Republican nominee for the presidency. He was so popular because of his victories in the Civil War that he received more than twice as many electoral votes as his Democratic opponent and became the eighteenth President of the United States. He was reëlected, and therefore served during eight years (1869–1877) of the reconstruction period.

During Grant's administration, progress in reconstruction was shown (1) by the passage of an Amnesty Act which allowed 150,000 leading men at the South to vote and hold office, and (2) by the readmission to the Union of the remaining southern states (p. 413)—Virginia, Mississippi, Texas, and Georgia—when they accepted the Fourteenth and Fifteenth Amendments.

The greatest glory of Grant's administration.—"Let us have peace" was Grant's most famous saying after the Civil War.

The greatest glory of his administration was the honorable avoidance of war with Great Britain and Spain. Many wanted war with Great Britain because she had allowed the building of cruisers which afterward turned up in Confederate hands, and because she had recognized the belligerency of the South, that is, she gave the South the common rights of war and did not regard its citizens as mere rebels or pirates. Some said that we ought to take Canada as payment for damages. Such talk threatened to destroy chances of a peaceful settlement.

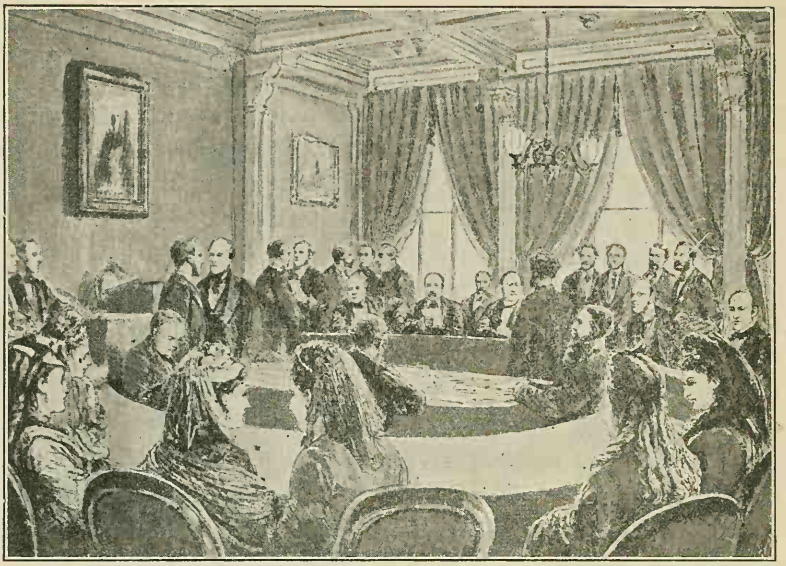


China's Memorial to Grant

Just north of Grant's Tomb, in New York, in 1897, representatives of China planted a beautiful ginkgo tree. A tablet (in Chinese and in English) reads in part as follows: "This tree is planted at the side of the tomb of General U. S. Grant, Ex-President of the United States of America, for the purpose of commemorating his greatness."

American and British statesmen at length succeeded in making the treaty of Washington (1871), under which it was agreed to submit claims for damages to a court of arbitration consisting of five members. President Grant, Queen Victoria, the king of Italy, the president of Switzerland, and the emperor of Brazil each appointed a member of the court, which met at Geneva, Switzerland, and awarded the United States the sum of $15,500,000 in gold for damages done by the *Alabama* and two other ships which the Confederates obtained from the British.

This was the first time that such an important dispute between two great nations had been peacefully decided by a board of arbitration. It marks an epoch in modern history. Men are



THE FINAL SESSION OF THE GENEVA COURT OF ARBITRATION

From a contemporary drawing by a French artist. Of minor interest in this picture are the fashions of 1872.

still hoping for the time when all international disputes can be settled without war. The straightforward manliness, honesty, and courtesy of the diplomats of the United States and Great Britain have been much admired. Hamilton Fish, Grant's able Secretary of State, acknowledged that Great Britain had the right to recognize the belligerency of the South, and Great Britain apologized for the "escape of the *Alabama* and other vessels from British ports."

The treaty of Washington also provided for arbitrating a troublesome boundary dispute and a disagreement about our rights to fish in Canadian waters. The emperor of Germany acted as arbitrator in settling the dispute over the boundary between Washington Territory and British America, involving the ownership of the San Juan (hwän) Islands in the channel between Vancouver (van-kōō′ver) Island and the mainland. He decided the question in favor of the United States.

The commission that arbitrated the fishery dispute did not please our country so well. It decided that the United States should pay $5,500,000 for fishing rights for twelve years. It was suspected that the award was made so large because claimants had not then (1877) appeared for all of the $15,500,000 given in the *Alabama* case.

Grant could also easily have had war with Spain. She seized a vessel, the *Virginius*, flying the American flag, but really owned by Cuban rebels. More than fifty of her crew, including nine Americans and sixteen Englishmen, were put to death. This matter was settled by diplomacy after angry passions had subsided. As the belligerency of the Cubans had not been recognized, the *Virginius* was considered a pirate vessel by the law of nations.

Corruption in politics.—If keeping the peace was the glory of Grant's administration, its blot was political corruption. Wars call for noble examples of individual patriotism. Men and women give their toil and their lives for their country. Wars, however, do not improve the moral standards of a country but usually lower them. They enable a few to gain big profits, but they make many people poorer, and they decrease the respect for law.

We have seen that some state governments in the South were corrupt, but some governments were dishonest also in the North. The city of New York fell under the influence of the Tweed Ring, so called from William M. Tweed, a political boss, who managed the elections. He relied largely on the foreign vote in the city of New York, just as the corrupt politicians in the South depended on the negroes. When a man wished to collect from the city $5000 for a bill owed him, he was told he would not be paid until he raised it to $55,000. He was then given $5000, and the Tweed Ring took the rest. Sometimes it stole as much as eighty-five per cent of the city's money. This special ring was broken up (1871), but dishonesty was not cured.

Men in the national government made money in dishonest ways from railroad construction, for which the government

furnished the money. A member of Grant's cabinet received $20,000 for his influence in keeping a man in a profitable government position. A Whisky Ring bribed officials of the United States to pass whisky without collecting revenue amounting to nearly $3,000,000.

Grant himself was perfectly honest but he was deceived by some of his friends.

The panic of 1873.—A war is often a stimulant to business for a while, but it is usually followed by a period of hard times. There are two reasons for this. (1) War uses up a vast amount of capital in gunpowder, arms, and supplies, and produces nothing. Shovels, axes, and wagons, unlike gunpowder, may be continuously used to produce more wealth. War also kills or cripples human beings so that they can no longer make things of value for the world. To cut down the strong men that produce wealth is like "killing the goose that laid the golden eggs."

(2) People get the habit of speculating because prices rise during war times. Men then buy all sorts of things and hold them for higher prices. The more they buy, the more money they hope to make. They also wish to manufacture as much as possible to sell at a big profit. Many wish to borrow money so as to do more business. Finally there comes a time when prices are so high that buyers purchase as little as possible and lenders begin to call for their money. People rush to sell and prices fall. Men then think that if they wait, they can get things much lower. Business failures usually follow, and more goods are thrown on the market.

In reconstruction days people thought that almost any one could get rich from railroads. Thousands of miles were built in every direction. Many of these roads did not earn enough to pay the interest on the money used in their construction. More than four hundred and fifty railroads were sold under the hammer.

The panic of 1873 came quickly and crippled all lines of business, throwing laborers out of work and causing much suffering. The effects of this panic lasted for six years.

The election of 1876; Hayes ends the reconstruction period.—Hard times and political corruption caused a demand for reform. The Democrats nominated for President, in 1876, Samuel J. Tilden, the governor of New York, who had helped to break up the Tweed Ring. Their campaign cry was "Tilden and Reform." The Republican nominee was Rutherford B. Hayes, the governor of Ohio, and a man of as high character as his opponent. There was a very hard contest between the two parties. The election gave neither candidate an undisputed majority of the electoral vote. The result depended on the way the votes from South Carolina, Florida, and Louisiana and one electoral vote from Oregon were counted. Opposing officials in each of these states issued two sets of certificates. One set claimed that the Tilden electors had won. The other set made the same claim for Hayes.

The Constitution had made no provision for deciding between two such opposing claims to the vote of a state. There were threats of civil war over the matter, but Congress decided to leave the decision to a commission of fifteen, made up of five senators, five representatives, and five justices of the Supreme Court. By a vote of eight to seven they decided the election in favor of Hayes, two days before the time for his inauguration.

Hayes promptly ended the period of reconstruction by withdrawing all Federal soldiers from the South (1877). The so-called "carpetbag" governments at once lost control. Twelve years after the close of the Civil War the South was free to manage its own affairs.

Summary of Points of Emphasis for Review.—(1) Upholding the Monroe Doctrine in Mexico, (2) Alaska Purchase, (3) why reconstruction was difficult, (4) the presidential plan, (5) why Congress opposed it, (6) the congressional plan, (7) the reconstruction amendments, (8) the negro, (9) character of reconstruction government, (10) Ku Klux Klan, its object, (11) impeachment of Johnson, (12) election of Grant, (13) progress of reconstruction, (14) Grant's greatest success, (15) political corruption, (16) panic of 1873, (17) election of 1876 and end of reconstruction.

Activities.—Find in your geographies or encyclopedias facts that prove the wisdom of the purchase of Alaska.

Write a hundred words to describe the difference between the presidential and the congressional plans of reconstruction.

In three minutes explain to the class the difficulty of the problem of caring for the negro.

Why was the North so anxious to have the Constitution amended to protect the negro?

Give a clear statement of the difference between the steps necessary to make a change in the Constitution and the steps necessary to make a change in a national law.

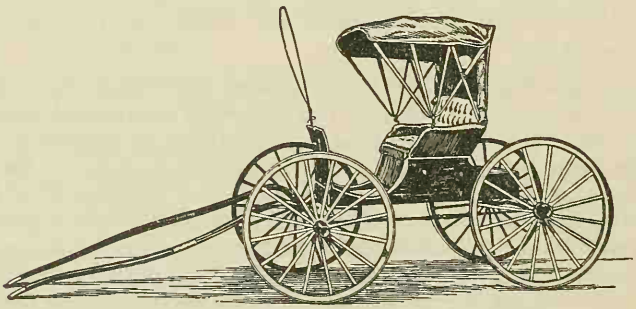
(The teacher should read to the class a New York editor's account of "carpetbag" rule in South Carolina from James, *Readings in American History*, 493–497. Members of the class should give two-minute talks on the evils of "carpetbag" rule and should then explain how the South overthrew that government.)

Make a three-minute speech on the advantage of a court of arbitration, like that at Geneva, over war to settle a dispute.

Prove that the world is rendered poorer by war, although it may make certain individuals or classes richer.

References for Teachers.—Fish, *Development of Am. Nationality*, 407–450; Fleming, *The Sequel of Appomattox* (Chron. of Am.); Dunning, *Reconstruction, Political and Economic*, I.–XXI.; Rhodes, *Hist. of the U. S.*, Vol. VI., Chs. XXXI., XXXVII., XXXIX.; Vol. VII., Chs. XL.–XLIV.; Paxson, *New Nation*, II.–IV.; Oberholzer, *Hist. of U. S. Since the Civil War*, Vol. II.; Wilson, *Division and Reunion*, 254–275, 286; Andrews, *The U. S. in Our Own Time*, I.–VI.; Haworth, *U. S. in Our Own Times, 1865–1920*, 1–73; Hart, *Am. Hist. Told by Contemporaries*, Vol. IV., Chs. XXIII., XXV.

For Pupils.—Elson, *Side Lights on Am. Hist.*, II., 58–62, 148–284; Booker Washington, *Up from Slavery*, 77–91; Hart, *Source Book of Am. Hist.*, 336–358; Page, *Red Rock* (fiction).



American Buggy, the Usual Passenger Vehicle until the Advent of the Automobile.

CHAPTER XXVIII

A NEW PERIOD, 1877 TO 1897

Why this is called a new period.—From the Missouri Compromise (1820) until the end of the period of reconstruction (1877), the questions of slavery and of the condition of the negro were disturbing the nation. During the forty years preceding the Civil War, every addition of foreign territory and the admission of every new state were considered from the point of view of how they would affect slavery.

The beginning of this new twenty-year period (1877–1897) saw the end of reconstruction. Slavery and the negro dropped into the background. New problems occupied the attention of the nation.

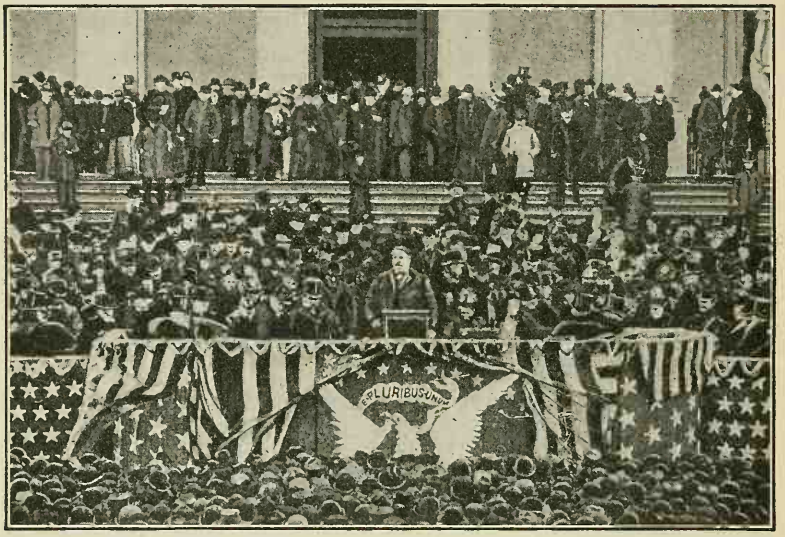
Five Presidents.—During this period the country had Republican Presidents for twelve of the twenty years and a Democratic President for the other eight. All of these men gave the country good administrations.

The first two Republican Presidents of the period, Rutherford B. Hayes (term of office, 1877–1881) and James A. Garfield (term of office, March, 1881, to September, 1881), were both Ohio men, college graduates and valedictorians, Civil War generals, and members of the national House of Representatives during the war.

The third President was a Republican, Chester A. Arthur, a lawyer from New York. He was Vice President when Garfield was assassinated. Arthur served as President for the remainder of Garfield's term (September, 1881, to March, 1885). Like Hayes and Garfield, Arthur was a college graduate who took very high standing in his class. Like them, he served in the Civil War, where he won the rank of quartermaster-general. Unlike them, he had never reached the national Congress.

The other two Presidents during these twenty years were Grover Cleveland (terms of office, 1885–1889 and 1893–1897), a Democrat from New York, and Benjamin Harrison (term of office, 1889–1893), a Republican from Indiana.

Unlike the other four Presidents of this period, Cleveland was not a college graduate nor did he serve in the Civil War.



Inauguration of President Cleveland

After taking the oath of office, at noon March 4, it is the custom for the new President to deliver an inaugural address from the steps of the Capitol. This picture, made from a photograph, shows only a small part of the audience.

He was a lawyer who was elected (1882) governor of New York by one of the largest majorities ever given a governor. His contest for the presidency with James G. Blaine, the most popular man in the Republican party, was exciting. Both parties waged a campaign of abusing the opposing candidate. The day after the election, both sides saw that the result depended on a few hundred votes in New York. The country was in fever heat for more than a week until a recount of the vote showed that Cleveland had carried New York and won. He was the first Democratic President elected since the Civil War

After serving for four years, Cleveland was defeated by Benjamin Harrison, of Indiana. Like Hayes and Garfield, Harrison was valedictorian of his class and helped to answer the question: "What becomes of the valedictorians?" Like them he had been a general in the Civil War and a member of the national Congress. He was a grandson of General William Henry Harrison, a former President. After Harrison's one term (1889–1893), Cleveland defeated him for reëlection and served his second term, which ended this period.

Aims of the Presidents.—We can more easily remember this period of peace with foreign powers when we have our attention called to the fact that the aims of all five of these Presidents and their greatest successes were very much alike. The people of the opposing parties at that time did not realize this; hence this period seemed a tangle to them. They often thought that their Presidents wanted the wrong things. Fair-minded men in both parties to-day admit that there was nothing unworthy in the chief aims of any of these five Presidents, and that their goals were much the same.

The most important political battles of this time were fought over the tariff, civil service reform, and the money question. Every one of the five Presidents fought for civil service reform and for honest money; but there was a striking difference in their views concerning the tariff. Cleveland believed in a low tariff that would yield only enough money tc pay the expenses of government. The others thought there should be a tariff sufficiently high to protect American manufactures.

Men in the same party thought differently on all these questions. Republican and Democratic politicians both disliked civil service reform. Many in both parties wanted cheap money. Though a tariff for protection was usually a Republican measure, many Democrats favored it.

The civil service of the United States.—The civil service includes nearly all positions of trust or employment under our government except those in the army and navy. All post office

and customhouse employees, for instance, belong to the civil service. The number of such employees increases as the business of the government grows. If the government should operate the railroads and telegraph and telephone lines, its civil service employees would be more than doubled and would include millions of men and women.

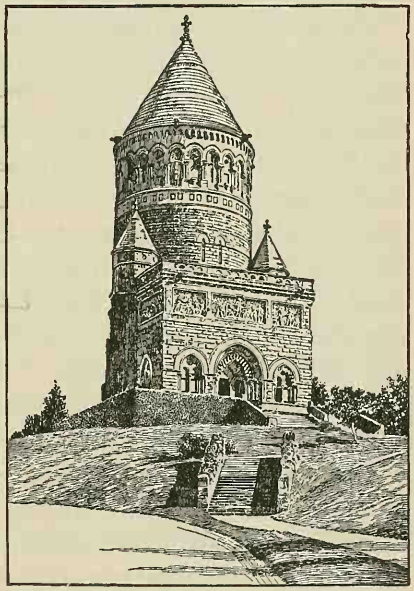
National civil service reform.—The most important reform of this period was that of the civil service. The aim of this reform was to have government employees selected for their fitness to do the required work and not because of political influence. This reform was in exact opposition to the practice, common since Andrew Jackson's time, of giving positions to those who belonged to the victorious party in return for their having worked for its success.

Attempts at civil service reform had failed before this period because the public had not been sufficiently educated to demand it. A civil service reform law in Grant's administration did not bring good results because Congress would not provide money to hold competitive examinations. Reforms need enough of the people behind them to prevent the election of the politician or party opposed to them. A few men at first took up the task of teaching the people that the business of our government is the greatest in the country and that its affairs ought to be as well managed as those of any private business. They then attempted the harder task of convincing voters that incompetent men can not be good managers of the government's business. Men who selected their own doctors carefully would often say that one man was as good as another for the government.

Hayes fights for the reform.—Grant had wanted better methods of selecting government employees, but he had not actively fought the politicians to secure a reform. Hayes was the first fighting President to reform the civil service. The bosses in New York state, those who had the power to elect or to defeat Presidents, secured their influence by finding good government places for their followers. The most paying Federal positions

in that state were in the New York Customhouse, which collected the duties on most of the nation's imports. Hayes found this important branch of the government's business corruptly managed by dishonest or inefficient employees. He threw down the gage of battle to the bosses of his own party by removing Chester A. Arthur, whom they had made head of the customhouse. Hayes selected another head and told him to run the place on business principles. This removal caused a national sensation. The bosses said that Hayes was a "granny" and they called his pet measure "snivel service reform." They said that he was ruining his party. He replied: "He serves his party best who serves his country best."

How the assassination of Garfield affected the reform.— Hayes feared that the politicians would undo all his work when he retired to private life. Garfield, his successor, had been President only a few months when he was assassinated by a half-crazed office-seeker. This assassination of the President awakened the public to the fact that an utterly worthless creature had committed the crime because the President had refused to give him an office. Many realized that the assassin would never have thought of facing a competitive examination for any good position. There was at once a more general demand to have applicants pass competitive examinations for government positions.



Tomb of President Garfield, in Cleveland, Ohio

Arthur champions civil service; the Pendleton Act.—The politicians were glad when Vice President Arthur became President. They thought that he would stop civil service reform because Hayes had removed him for making political appointments. Arthur knew from experience the evils of the system, and he became an eager civil service reformer.

The greatest glory of Arthur's administration was the Pendleton Act (1883), so called because Senator Pendleton of Ohio introduced the bill. This act ordered competitive examinations for certain classes of government employees, forbade any party to ask them to contribute money toward the expenses of a political campaign, and provided for a Civil Service Commission of three men to aid the President in carrying out the reform. The President was given the power to extend the civil service law to other classes of government employees. The Pendleton Act has been called the *Magna Charta* of civil service reform.

Cleveland and Harrison aid the reform.—Arthur applied the merit system to a classified list numbering 16,000 government employees. Cleveland in his first term put the railway post office service under the merit system and added 12,000 more employees to the list. Harrison extended the civil service classification to the Weather Bureau, some free-delivery post offices, and other departments, thus adding 11,000 to the merit list. He put Theodore Roosevelt on the Civil Service Commission. James Russell Lowell said he was thankful for the appointment of Roosevelt, a man "so energetic, so full of zeal, and, still more, so full of fight." Cleveland broke the record in his second term by adding many new departments and by placing 39,000 more under the merit system.

The new system was not then perfect, nor is it perfect to-day. Roosevelt said (1890): "We not only have to make every advance in the teeth of the fiercest opposition, but we have to fight every hour to keep the ground that we have gained."

The acts of all five of the Presidents in this time of peace lead us to believe that if any one of them had been asked to define

patriotism he might have replied that fighting for civil service reform is one of the duties of the patriot. Our states and cities have lagged far behind our national government in championing this reform.

Contest for sound money.—Probably a majority of the voters during parts of this period would have liked cheap money, but every one of the five Presidents believed in gold as the standard for money. Debtors wished cheap money in order to be able to pay their debts more easily. Before 1879 greenbacks were cheap money; ten dollars in gold would buy more than ten dollars in greenbacks, because it was not *certain* that the government would redeem the greenbacks. Hayes and John Sherman, his able Secretary of the Treasury, succeeded in limiting the issue of greenbacks and in providing for their redemption in coin, January 1, 1879. When people found that they could exchange their greenbacks for gold, they were satisfied to keep them.

The struggle for silver.—In 1873 the United States stopped the coinage of silver dollars. This was called the "demonetization" of silver and was afterward spoken of as "the crime of '73" by those who wanted cheaper money. The United States was merely following the leading civilized nations in adopting the single gold standard of money. More silver was mined, and it fell rapidly in value.

When the bullion in a silver dollar was worth more than a gold dollar, there was no desire for the coinage of silver; but when it became worth less than gold, silver mine owners and those who wished cheaper money forced the passage of laws to compel the purchase and coinage of large quantities of silver from 1877 to 1893. In the latter year, there was a panic which threatened to drive out all the gold and to leave the United States on a silver basis. In that year Cleveland persuaded Congress to stop the purchase of silver for money. No President struggled harder for sound money.

Demand for free coinage of silver.—In the next presidential election (1896) the Democrats nominated William J. Bryan of

Nebraska on a platform which demanded the free and unlimited coinage of silver at the ratio of sixteen times as much weight of silver as of gold in a dollar. The Republicans nominated William McKinley, the governor of Ohio, on a sound-money platform. They declared against the free coinage of silver except by international agreement.

Free coinage of silver was desired by many in the West and South because a greater proportion of the debtor class lived there than in the East. Many of the farmers had their land mortgaged. They could pay their debts far more easily with a silver dollar worth about sixty cents in gold, than with a gold dollar representing a full value of one hundred cents. As the price of silver was steadily falling, creditors feared that they would be paid with dollars worth only fifty cents. If such should be the case, it would be twice as easy to pay a debt. Creditors and business men said this would be grossly unfair, no better than the theft of fifty cents out of every dollar.

Such a charge might be true in the case of those who had borrowed money when things were cheap, but it was not true of those who had gone in debt during the period of high prices that prevailed in the Civil War and for some time after it. Debtors said they should be expected to pay back only as much purchasing power as they received. If the hundred dollars which a man borrowed would buy only one cow, one barrel of flour, and one bushel of potatoes, and if the hundred dollars which he returned would buy twice that amount, then the creditor was the one who profited unfairly by the change in prices. Farmers and others who had borrowed during the period of inflation felt unjustly treated when they had to pay back more purchasing power than they received. No government in the world has yet provided a method whereby borrowers must return only the same purchasing power as was lent them.

The campaign which followed Bryan's nomination was the most exciting one of this period. He received 6,500,000 votes, a million more than had been given to any previously elected

President. McKinley had 600,000 more votes than Bryan and was elected. The size of the vote shows the deep interest taken in the money question. After the result of the election was known, business began to improve.

The gold standard.—McKinley's election was a victory for the gold standard. After he had been President for three years, a law was passed (March, 1900) which declared gold to be the standard of the country. The Secretary of the Treasury was directed to have a gold reserve fund of not less than $100,000,000 and to keep all other forms of money equal in value to gold.

This step was comparatively easy at that time, because the world's annual product of gold was much greater than ever before, and the country was prosperous.

The tariff.—The question of the tariff had been brought to the front before the money question was settled. The presidential election of 1888 was fought on that issue and not on personalities as in 1884. The Democrats in 1888 renominated Cleveland on a platform demanding a tariff for revenue only. This meant that no more duties should be collected than were sufficient to pay for the expenses of the government. The reason Cleveland demanded that import duties should be lowered then was because such huge sums of money had been taken from circulation and piled up in the treasury that business suffered for lack of funds. This large surplus tempted politicians to waste it. Some thought that the surplus ought to be paid out in raising pensions to Civil War veterans, and others said that much of it could be used in improving rivers and harbors.

The Republicans nominated Harrison (p. 425) on a platform that called for protection to American manufactures, and he was elected. William McKinley of Ohio, then a member of the House of Representatives, introduced a tariff measure known as the McKinley Bill. This increased the duties on most articles made or grown in the United States. He pleased a million farmers by putting a high duty on wool. Cleveland had proposed free wool. A politician who had dreamed of a "gun that would

hit if it was a wolf and miss if it was a sheep" said that Cleveland ought to get such a weapon. The farmers whose sheep he had hit voted against him.

The McKinley Bill raised the cost of living and defeated the Republicans in 1892. Cleveland was reëlected to succeed Harrison. In general, the Democrats stood for a low tariff and the Republicans for a high tariff, but men in both parties wanted a tariff that suited their interests. A sugar planter who was a Democrat said: "I favor free trade in everything except sugar."

Foreign dangers.—This was a period of peace, but three troubles with foreign nations might have been serious. An uprising of the best people in New Orleans (1891) killed some Italian citizens in putting down a branch of the Mafia (mä'fē-ä), a secret society of blackmailers and other criminals. Italy withdrew her minister to the United States, but diplomacy settled the affair peaceably.

Some sailors on shore leave from a United States war vessel were attacked in Valparaiso, Chile (1891). One of our sailors was killed, and eighteen were wounded. Chile claimed that our men were at fault. Harrison demanded an apology and reparation. Chile gave a forced apology and satisfied the United States.

The most serious foreign trouble came in Cleveland's second administration. There was a dispute over a boundary line between Venezuela and British Guiana. Richard Olney of Massachusetts, then Secretary of State, declared that under the Monroe Doctrine the United States was interested in defending Venezuelan rights, and demanded that the boundary should be settled by arbitration. Great Britain replied that the Monroe Doctrine did not apply to the settlement of a boundary dispute between herself and Venezuela. President Cleveland startled the United States by saying in effect that we would fight if Great Britain should take any territory rightfully belonging to Venezuela. The United States then started to have the boundary line investigated by a commission of her own citizens.

Facing this determined attitude, Great Britain agreed with Venezuela to have the question settled by an international jury. The United States was satisfied, and both nations were glad that the danger of war had passed. The international jury found that most of the disputed territory belonged to British Guiana.

Summary of Points of Emphasis for Review.—(1) The five Presidents of the period, their scholarship and previous experience in government, (2) new problems and their attitude toward them, (3) what the civil service is, (4) the need for its reform, (5) Hayes's fight for reform, (6) effect of the assassination of Garfield on the reform, (7) the steps taken by Arthur, Cleveland, and Harrison and the result of their efforts, (8) cheap money *vs.* sound money, (9) why the free coinage of silver was demanded, (10) victory for the gold standard, (11) tariff for revenue only *vs.* tariff for protection, (12) three troubles with foreign nations and their settlement.

Activities.—Compare the "spoils system" (Chap. XXI.) with the civil-service-examination method of selecting government officials. Which of the two would a good business man consider the better, and why? Read Pendleton's speech on civil service reform in James, *Readings in Am. Hist.*, 514–525, and that of Carl Schurz in Hart, *Am. Hist. Told by Contemporaries*, IV., 636–638.

Find out how the officials of your city, town, county, and state receive their positions. Give a three-minute talk on the best and the worst way of selecting public employees.

Write one hundred words to show in what respects the period from 1877 to 1897 is a "new period."

Explain how a creditor or a debtor may be treated unjustly in the payment of the exact number of dollars called for in an agreement.

In one sentence for each, write the definition of the following terms: (a) demonetization, (b) free coinage of silver, (c) protective tariff, (d) tariff for revenue only, (e) gold standard.

References for Teachers.—Paxson, *Recent Hist. of U. S.*, IV.–XXIII.; Ford, *The Cleveland Era* (Chron. of Am.); Fish, *Development of Am. Nationality*, 450–482; Sparks, *National Development*, IX., XII., XVII.; Buck, *Agrarian Crusade* (Chron. of Am.), VI.–XII.; Dewey, *National Problems*, II., IV., V., XI., XIII.–XVII., XIX., XX.; Rhodes, *Hist. of the U. S. from Hayes to McKinley;* Paxson, *The New Nation*, V.–VIII., X., XIII., XIV.; Andrews, *The U. S. in Our Own Time*, IX., X., XII., XIII., XVII.; Peck, *Twenty Years of the Republic*, I.–XI.; Beard, *Contemporary Am. Hist.*, 90–132; Bogart, *Economic Hist. of the U. S.*, XXVI.; Hart, *Am. Hist. Told by Contemporaries*, IV., 518–540, 557–572.

For Pupils.—Elson, *Side Lights on Am. Hist.*, II., 285–351; Hart, *Source Book of Am. Hist.*, 360–365; Barstow, *Progress of a United People* (Century Hist. Readers), 26–35.

CHAPTER XXIX

THE UNITED STATES BECOMES A WORLD POWER

Change of view.—It had become the settled policy of the United States to attend to its own affairs and to pay no attention to what other nations were doing so long as they did not actually interfere with her or try to set aside the Monroe Doctrine. The people thought that nothing could arise to make them meddle with the affairs of any foreign nation or to induce them to get a foot of land in the Old World.

McKinley's administration (1897–1901) saw the United States do two things directly opposed to the nation's former

SANTIAGO HARBOR — PART OF THE WEST INDIES

policy: (1) interfere with the affairs of Spain and China, and (2) acquire territory in the Old World. As a result, the United States became a world power.

Trouble in Cuba.—In Grant's administration the Cubans began (1868) a ten years' war to free themselves from Spanish rule. Americans wanted Cuba to secure her freedom. They

sometimes sent her supplies, and a few even fought in her army. Spain caught some of these Americans and put them to death. The United States then came very near declaring war against Spain. These ten years of war did not bring independence to the Cubans, although Spain promised them a large measure of self-government, a promise that she did not keep. The Cubans again rebelled in 1895, and Spain sent over a harsh general to crush them. Spain was angry because citizens of the United States were expressing sympathy for Cuba.

War with Spain.—The United States battleship *Maine*, which had been sent to Havana to protect American interests, was blown up at night by a mine or other external object (February 15, 1898). Two hundred and sixty of her crew were killed and sixty wounded. The country was shocked as it had not been since the days of the Civil War. "Remember the Maine" became a slogan. Her destruction, sympathy with the Cubans, and the loss of American trade and large investments in Cuba, led Congress to declare war with Spain (April, 1898). Congress at the same time declared that it was not the intention of the United States to hold Cuba permanently but to give it peace and freedom and then to leave the government of the island to its own people.

Attitude of foreign nations.—Six ambassadors from leading European nations sent a note to President McKinley. This communication and his reply were thus condensed by a newspaper correspondent: "Said the six ambassadors: 'We hope for humanity's sake that you will not go to war.' Said Mr. McKinley in reply: 'We hope if we do go to war you will understand it is for humanity's sake.'"

Most of the European nations sided with Spain and thought the United States should mind her own business. Continental European newspapers called the war "an act of international piracy without shadow of justice." The great English papers, with one exception, took the side of the United States. When London heard of the declaration of war, the Stars and Stripes

were displayed in every part of the city. Crowds of Englishmen went to the American Embassy in London and cheered. There had been talk of foreign intervention to stop the war, but when Great Britain's attitude became known, such talk ceased.

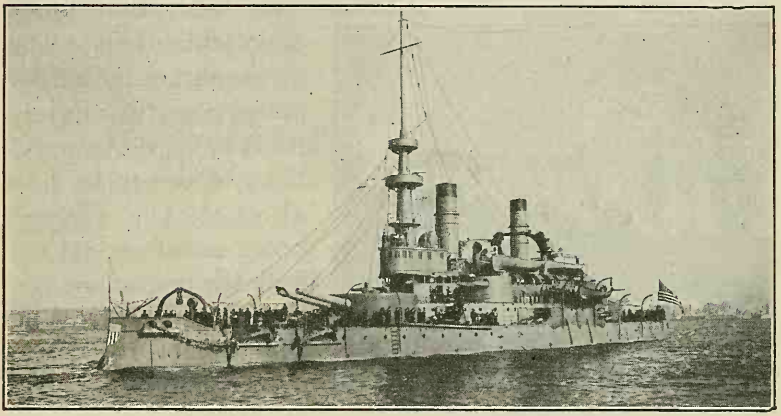
Battle of Manila Bay.—On paper, the Spanish navy seemed as strong as that of the United States. Many foreigners expected Spain to be victorious on the sea. Admiral George Dewey was at Hongkong, British China, with four cruisers and some smaller vessels. He was ordered by cable to go at once to the Philippine Islands and capture or destroy the Spanish fleet stationed there. It was night when Dewey entered the narrow channel that led to the city of Manila in the Philippines, where the Spanish fleet lay. His ships steamed ahead over mines and by forts that made the ships a target. In the morning (May 1, 1898) the astonished Spaniards saw Dewey's ships in Manila Bay, getting ready for action. The Spaniards had more vessels, but they were no match for the Americans. That May morning Dewey destroyed the Spanish fleet without the loss of a vessel or of a man.

THE PHILIPPINES

Dewey blockaded Manila after his victory and waited for an army to cross the Pacific and take the city. Meanwhile he made regulations for the use of the harbor. A strong German fleet arrived and began to defy the Americans. Dewey sent an officer with a warning to the German admiral. A British squadron was also present, and on learning of the threatened trouble the British commander moved to a position near Dewey. The German admiral understood the meaning of that act and

presently sailed away. The American army came in August, occupied Manila, and raised the Stars and Stripes in the Orient.

The naval battle of Santiago.—Spain sent across the Atlantic four fine battle cruisers which eluded the American patrol and slipped into the harbor of Santiago (sän-tē-ä′gō), a port in the southeastern part of Cuba, well protected by hills and a narrow channel. Admiral Sampson, who commanded the fleet of the United States in the West Indies, guarded the harbor to keep



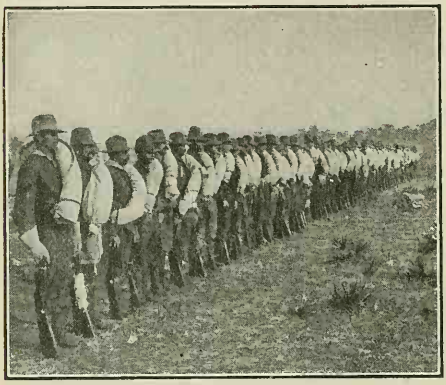
THE OREGON. Photograph from the Navy Department.

the Spanish vessels from escaping. The Spanish admiral, fearing that American soldiers would take the heights around Santiago and bombard his fleet, dashed out (July 3, 1898) when Admiral Sampson's ship had sailed away to the east for a conference with the commander of the American land forces. Admiral Schley (slī), then the ranking commander, followed Sampson's orders in closing in on the Spanish ships. Two Spanish cruisers were sunk in a few minutes. One Spanish vessel got twenty miles away before her sinking condition forced her to run ashore. Another Spanish cruiser, the *Colon* (kō-lōn′), was fleeing six miles ahead of the American vessels. The battleship *Oregon*, which had come from the Pacific around Cape Horn to take part in the fight, increased her speed until she was within range of

the *Colon*. The Spaniards, seeing that the *Colon* could not escape, opened her sea valves, and she sank.

The Spanish admiral lost his entire fleet. Nearly 500 of his men were killed or wounded and 1800 taken prisoners. The Americans had one man killed and one wounded. No American vessel was seriously injured.

The work of the army.—Some boasted that the United States could throw a million soldiers into the field in six weeks. Experience made that boast seem ridiculous. The 62,000 men in the regular army were fortunately ready to fight. As everything needed to be done at once, the 216,000 brave volunteers did not have the proper arrangements made for their food, clothing, or health. One volunteer regiment of cavalry, commonly known as Roosevelt's Rough Riders, in command of Colonel Leonard Wood and Lieutenant Colonel Theodore Roosevelt, plunged into the war at once.



ROUGH RIDERS

Just before embarking for Cuba. Although enlisted as cavalry, they served as foot soldiers in the war.

Most of the fighting in Cuba consisted of land operations near Santiago. An American army landed on the coast and soon captured San Juan Hill and the town of El Caney (kä-nā′), which the Spaniards had fortified to protect Santiago. As we have seen (p. 437), the advance of our soldiers alarmed the Spanish admiral and forced him out of the harbor. Santiago surrendered a few days later. The destruction of the Spanish fleet practically ended the war, since Spain could no longer send men and ammunition across the ocean to Cuba. This was most fortunate, because the food for our army was so poor, the

uniforms so unsuited to tropical warfare, and the hospital service so inadequate, that by the end of July seventy per cent of our soldiers were sick.

An American army under General Nelson A. Miles had landed in Porto Rico and was taking possession of that island when preliminaries to peace were signed (August 12, 1898).

Treaty of peace.—After long discussion a treaty of peace was signed (December 10, 1898) by representatives of the United States and Spain at Paris, France. It provided that Spain should (1) immediately relinquish all rights in Cuba, (2) give to the United States Porto Rico with the other small Spanish islands in the West Indies and also Guam in the Ladrones group of islands in the Pacific, and (3) sell the Philippines to the United States for $20,000,000. Spain, the discoverer and first colonizer of America, had lost her last American colony.

Problem of the Philippines.—Many Americans were opposed to our taking the Philippines. They said that our country would become mixed up in the affairs of the Old World and develop a liking for conquest which might ruin the republic. We took the Philippines because the islands were in a state of anarchy. If we had forcibly returned them to Spain, there would have been the same terrible condition of affairs as prevailed in Cuba. Many of the Filipinos (fĭl-ĭ-pē′nōz) were fighting for their liberty just as much as the Cubans were. Spain admitted that it was now so weak that it might not be able to take the Philippines unless the United States used its soldiers to force the inhabitants into submission. On the other hand, the Filipinos were not able to form a good independent government for themselves. Most of them were uneducated; they had had no experience in self-government; and they were divided into several peoples of different languages and religions, who were at war with one another. In spite of such facts, the feeling against taking Old World territory was so strong that the treaty which gave us the Philippines was carried in the Senate by a very small margin over the required two-thirds majority.

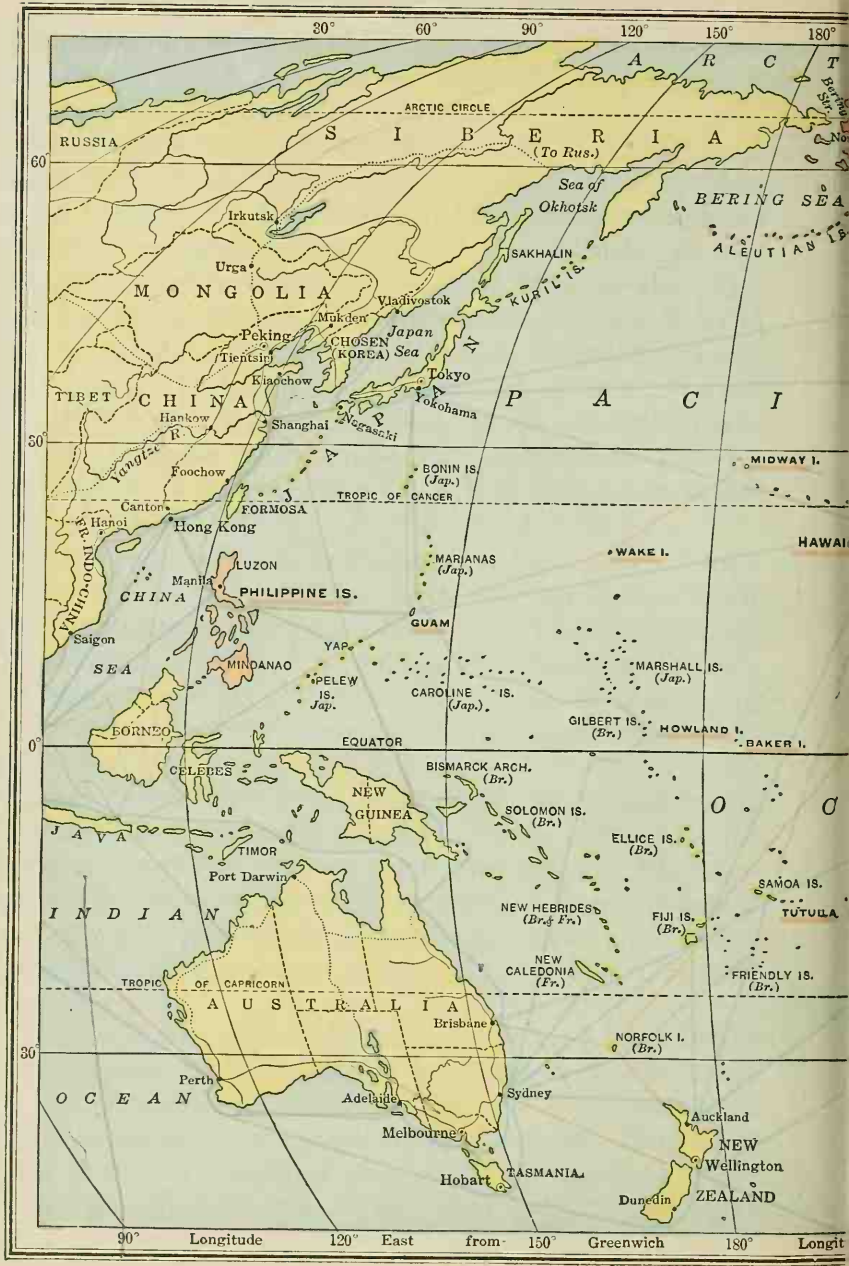
After we had secured the Philippines, we had the very disagreeable task of subduing the natives. This cost us eight times as much as we paid Spain for the islands.

When the native rebellion had been subdued, the United States began to give the Filipinos as large a measure of self-government as was thought wise. The President of the United States appoints the governor-general and some other leading officials. Most of the officials are now Filipinos, and the Filipinos elect their own legislature. The islands are governed as a dependency of the United States "subject to the practically unlimited authority of Congress." There is a general feeling that a gradually increasing amount of self-government should be allowed the Filipinos. By act of 1916, Congress expressed its intention to recognize the independence of the Philippines "as soon as a stable government can be established therein."

The Philippine Islands have an area of about 115,000 square miles, or nearly the same size as Nevada or New Mexico. Their inhabitants are mostly of the Malay race. The chief export is Manila hemp, which makes good rope, but the soil and climate are fitted for growing products as different as rice, corn, sugar, and coconuts. Much of the surface remains a dense jungle, and there are few good roads.

Disposition of Cuba.—The United States had declared that it intervened in Cuba for the sake of humanity and not for the purpose of acquiring more territory. After the Spanish evacuation, the President appointed a military governor-general of Cuba, who showed the natives how to get rid of yellow fever, how to organize local government, and how to improve education.

In 1902 General Leonard Wood, the governor-general, turned the island over to the Cubans. When an insurrection broke out in 1906, President Roosevelt sent Secretary of War Taft there to direct affairs. This second American administration lasted for a little more than two years, when the island was again turned over to the Cubans. The United States has by treaty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Mukden
Peking
Tientsin
CHOSEN (KOREA)
Japan Sea
Kiaochow
Tokyo
Yokohama
TIBET
C H I N A
Hankow
Shanghai
Nagasaki
P A C I
Yangtze R.
Foochow
BONIN IS. (Jap.)
MIDWAY I.
TROPIC OF CANCER
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FORMOSA
Hanoi
Hong Kong
HAWAII
WAKE I.
MARIANAS (Jap.)
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Manila
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GILBERT IS. (Br.)
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TIMOR
ELLICE IS. (Br.)
Port Darwin
SAMOA IS.
TUTUILA
I N D I A N
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NEW CALEDONIA (Fr.)
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THE UNITED STATES
and its
Outlying Possessions

SCALE OF MILES

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Railroads

Steamship Lines

Ocean Cables

Telegraph Lines .....

the right to intervene in Cuba when necessary for the maintenance of good government, but such intervention has seemed necessary only once.

Every citizen of the United States ought to feel proud of our treatment of Cuba. In all history no country has acted more generously toward another. After freeing Cuba, we turned it over to its own people on conditions that seemed as strange as a fairy tale to foreign nations. Although we had shed our blood and spent millions to free Cuba, we merely asked the Cubans to govern themselves well, to remain independent, to keep the cities sanitary, and to educate their children. We tried to show the Cubans how to do all these things.

Porto Rico.—The United States had made no promise about Porto Rico, and we kept it as a colony after the war. In 1917 the Porto Ricans were made citizens of the United States. They elect their own legislature, but the President of the United States appoints the governor of the island.

Porto Rico is three times the size of Rhode Island and has about twice the population. Eighty per cent of the people of Porto Rico live in the country, while more than ninety per cent of Rhode Islanders dwell in cities. Porto Rico raises sugar, coffee, tobacco, and fruit. Before annexation, we took about one sixth of its exports; now, it sends four fifths of them to us. In some years there are only eleven countries in the world that send us goods of more value. Porto Rico is small but we have more trade with it than with all of Africa.

Annexation of the Hawaiian Islands and of Tutuila.—Many of the people of the Hawaiian (hä-wī′yan) Islands, which are in the Pacific Ocean about 2000 miles southwest of San Francisco, had for some time wished to become citizens of the United States. They furnished coal and provisions to our vessels on their way to the Philippines during the Spanish-American war and showed how useful they could be. In 1898 Congress annexed these islands, and two years later made them a territory of the United States, subject to its Constitution and laws.

PINEAPPLE PLANTATION, HAWAII
The raising and canning of pineapples is one of the important industries in the Hawaiian Islands.

In times of peace, these islands are even more useful to us than in war. They send to the United States many million dollars' worth of sugar a year.

Pearl Harbor, near Honolulu (hō-nō-lo͞o′lo͞o) in the Hawaiian group, is the finest in the northern Pacific. The United States also (1899) annexed Tutuila (to͞o-to͞o-ē′lä), one of the Samoan group of islands, made famous by the Scotch author, Robert Louis Stevenson. Tutuila has the finest harbor in the southern Pacific, and is now used as a naval base by the United States.

Trouble in China.—The expanding United States learned that no part of the world was too far distant to interest her. Russia had taken valuable parts of Chinese territory, and other nations wanted to get what they considered their share of China and to seek the monopoly of certain kinds of trade with her. An organization of Chinese, called "Boxers," started the cry of "China for the Chinese" and tried to rid China of foreigners (1900). They even killed missionaries, shot the German minister to China, and laid siege to the building occupied by the British legation in Peking. The United States sent 5000 soldiers from

the Philippines. Japan and all the great European powers also rushed troops there, and together they rescued the foreigners. China was made to pay an indemnity of over $300,000,000. The share allowed the United States was about $24,000,000, but we returned part ($16,000,000) of this because it was three times the amount of all our losses and expenses in China.

The "Open Door."—John Hay, then Secretary of State under McKinley, contended for the principle of the "Open Door" for all parts of China. This meant that all nations should have the privilege of trading on equal terms with China. In all his diplomacy, Hay was honest and straightforward. He never tried to gain his point by hiding his real meaning in obscure phrases or by double-dealing. Hay had been private secretary to Abraham Lincoln and had learned diplomacy from him. The Chinese trusted Hay, and they trusted the United States because they had learned that it wanted from them no privileges not granted to other nations. Hay's diplomacy helped save China from dismemberment and division among the European powers after the Boxer uprising.

Reëlection of McKinley; assassination.—The Republicans renominated McKinley for President (1900), while the Democrats again named William J. Bryan. Theodore Roosevelt was made the Republican nominee for Vice President, against his will, by men who disliked him and who shared the common belief that this office is a grave-yard for political careers.

The chief issue of this campaign was not free silver but "imperialism." This was because the United States had abandoned the old policy of staying at home and had taken the Philippines. Some argued that such a step would lead to world conquest, which the Democrats opposed. The majority of the voters refused to be scared by such arguments and reëlected McKinley.

Soon after McKinley began his second term, he made at the Buffalo Pan-American Exposition (September, 1901) a speech which showed that he realized (1) that the United States had

become a link in the chain of the nations, and (2) that it ought to try to find a market for goods in every part of the world. "Isolation is no longer possible or desirable," he declared.

The day after this speech, he was assassinated by an anarchist. The affection in which McKinley was held is shown by the fact that more than a million people subscribed to build a granite monument for him at Canton, Ohio, where he lived.

Summary of Points of Emphasis for Review.—(1) Past policy of the United States toward the Old World, (2) why we went to war with Spain, (3) attitude of foreign nations, (4) battle of Manila Bay, (5) battle of Santiago, (6) the army in Cuba and Porto Rico, (7) terms of the treaty of peace, (8) the Philippines, (9) what the United States did for Cuba, (10) Porto Rico, (11) annexation of the Hawaiian Islands and their value to us, (12) China and the "Open Door," (13) "imperialism" and reëlection of McKinley, (14) two important ideas in McKinley's Buffalo speech.

Activities.—From the *Autobiography of George Dewey*, the teacher may read to the class the description of the battle in Manila Bay and his experience with the German admiral. Each member of the class may then write a newspaper cablegram of one hundred words giving the essentials of the story.

Draw a diagram of Manila Bay and its approaches; also of Santiago Bay.

The teacher may read to the class from Roosevelt's *Autobiography* his story of the San Juan fight and the result of our unpreparedness (middle of page 263 to bottom page 268). Each pupil may condense this into a 100-word press dispatch.

Draw a map showing the possessions that we acquired as a result of our war with Spain.

Make a list of the products we receive from our new possessions, including the Hawaiian Islands and Tutuila.

Why did we make such a struggle to keep the "Open Door" in China?

References for Teachers.—Rhodes, *McKinley and Roosevelt Administrations;* Fish, *Development of Am. Nationality*, XXVII.; Latané, *Am. as a World Power*, Chaps. I.–X., and *From Isolation to Leadership*, V.; Paxson, *New Nation*, XVI.; Sparks, *Expansion of Am. People*, XXXVI.; Andrews, *U. S. in Our Own Times*, XXVII., XXVIII; Dewey, *Autobiography of George Dewey;* Roosevelt, *Rough Riders*, I., IV., V.

For Pupils.—Elson, *Side Lights on Am. Hist.*, II., 352–401; Barstow, *Progress of a United People*, 70–106; Gordy, *Am. Leaders and Heroes*, 314–326; Ross, *Heroes of Our War with Spain;* Nicolay, *Book of Am. Wars*, 413–454; Hart, *Source Book of Am. Hist.*, 373–392; Twombley, *Hawaii and its People;* London, *Our Hawaii;* MacClintock, *Philippines.*

Fiction: Otis, *When Dewey Came to Manila;* Johnston, *The Little Colonel's Hero;* King, *Captured;* Hyatt, *Little Brown Brother.*

CHAPTER XXX

GROWTH OF THE WEST

The frontier.—The census of 1860 located the frontier on a line running south near the western boundaries of Minnesota and Iowa. South of Iowa, this line swerved west and passed through the eastern central part of Nebraska, Kansas, and Texas The "frontier" meant a population of more than two and less than six people to the square mile.

Beyond this frontier, there were a few settlers along the rivers, some fur traders, keepers of stations for stages, miners, and a colony of Mormons in northern Utah. With these few exceptions, the country between the frontier line and the Rocky Mountains was (1860) uninhabited by white people.

The central region.—If we had gone to school during the thirty years after 1820, the geographies would have taught us that the American Desert covered the region extending for nearly seven hundred miles west of Missouri and Iowa. Maps of this tract were dotted and shaded to indicate sandy desert, after the fashion of the old maps of the Sahara in northern Africa. Early travelers over these plains were most impressed with the scant rainfall and the lack of timber for building houses. Miners and settlers on their way to California and Oregon hurried over these plains as fast as they could.

For almost half a century the frontier line remained nearly stationary where it crossed the Missouri River, near the site of Kansas City. During that time farmers chose the lands that had more moisture. This delay in extending the frontier led to a great increase in the population of those states bordering on the Mississippi and the Great Lakes.

Let us join Mark Twain (Samuel L. Clemens, 1835–1910) on a stage trip west of this frontier line before the railroad came

OVERLAND TO THE PACIFIC.

The San Antonio and San Diego Mail-Line.

THIS Line, which has been in successful operation since July, 1857, is ticketing PASSENGERS through to San Diego and San Francisco, and also to all intermediate stations. Passengers and Express matter forwarded in NEW COACHES, drawn by six mules, over the entire length of our Line, excepting the Colorado Desert of one hundred miles, which we cross on mule-back. Passengers GUARANTEED in their tickets to ride in Coaches, excepting the one hundred miles above stated.

Passengers ticketed through, from NEW-ORLEANS, to the following points, via SAN ANTONIO:

To Fort Clark,	Fare, $52.		To Fort Bliss,	Fare, $100.	
" Hudson,	"	60.	" La Mesilla,	"	105.
" Port Lancaster,	"	70.	" Fort Fillmore,	"	105.
" Davis,	"	90.	" Tucson,	"	135.
" Quitman	"	100.	" Fort Yuma,	"	162.
" Birchville,	"	100.	" San Diego,	"	190.
" San Elizario	"	100.	" Los Angelos,	"	190.
" El Paso,	"	100.	" San Francisco,		200.

The Coaches of our Line leave semi-monthly from each end, on the 9th and 24th of each month, at 6 o'clock A.M.

An armed escort travels through the Indian country with each mail train, for the protection of the mails and passengers.

ADVERTISEMENT OF AN OVERLAND STAGE LINE

Mark Twain paid $150 for a ticket from Missouri to Nevada by another lin :

and brought a sudden change. His story can never again be told by an eyewitness of those scenes.

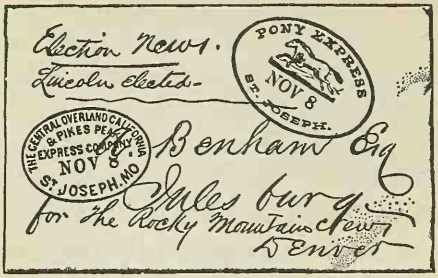
A trip on the overland stage route.—Railroads had reached the Missouri River (1859), but there was none crossing the plains until after the Civil War. Mark Twain gives in his book called *Roughing It* a vivid account of his trip across the plains to Nevada in the first year of the Civil War (1861). He bought his stage ticket for $150 at St. Joseph, Missouri, which could then be reached by both steamboat and railroad. Soon he found himself on the prairie, stretching away "for seven hundred miles as level as a floor." A woman who used very bad grammar talked so much that she kept the passengers awake the

first night, but when day came, Mark Twain took naps on the roof of the stage, which flew along at the rate of ten miles an hour. He describes the sagebrush, which he says usually looks like a "venerable live-oak tree reduced to a little shrub two feet high." He is interested in the villages of prairie dogs, the antelopes, the buffaloes, and the coyote, "a long, slim, sick-and-sorry-looking skeleton, with a gray wolfskin stretched over it." While the horses were being changed, he took part in a buffalo hunt. He relates how a wounded buffalo charged the horse of one of the passengers, and how that horse lost his head and ingloriously ran away, leaving behind the dogs, a jack rabbit, and a coyote, and nearly passing an antelope.

The stage followed the Oregon Trail to the Rocky Mountains, which were reached in eight days by traveling night and day. The party went through South Pass, and saw a spring which sent part of its waters to the Gulf of Mexico and another part to the Gulf of California. Here the stage turned south toward Salt Lake City, and went on into Nevada through an alkali desert. Mark Twain searched an unabridged dictionary to find words enough to tell how happy he was after he had finished the trip.

He had come by the famous overland stage route to Carson City, the capital of Nevada Territory, on the twentieth day out of St. Joseph. He stopped there, but the stage went on to Sacramento.

The pony express.—When Mark Twain took his stage journey to Nevada, there was no telegraph across the continent. Two wide-awake men had established a pony express (1860) to carry important messages and letters as quickly as possible from St. Joseph to Sacramento. This express was one of the most interesting sights that Mark Twain saw on his trip. He says of the pony rider: "He rode a splendid horse that was born for a racer and fed and lodged like a gentleman; kept him at his utmost speed for ten miles, and then, as he came crashing up to the station where stood two men holding a fresh impatient



ENVELOPE SENT BY PONY EXPRESS IN 1860
It contained news of the election of Lincoln as President.

steed, the transfer of rider and mail bag was made in the twinkling of an eye, and away flew the eager pair and were out of sight before the spectator could get hardly the ghost of a look. . . . There were about eighty pony riders in the saddle all the time, night and day, stretching in a long scattering procession from Missouri to California, forty flying eastward, and forty toward the west." One of the pony-express riders was William F. Cody, afterwards known as "Buffalo Bill," because he killed in eighteen months 4,280 buffaloes to provide meat for the workmen building the Union Pacific railway.

The pony-express trip of two thousand miles was made in from eight to nine days, or in about thrice the time now taken by an express train. The charge was five dollars for each letter written on very thin paper. This express was continued until the telegraph crossed the continent (1861).

The rush West after the Civil War.—While the war was in progress, Congress passed a new Homestead Act which allowed a settler to have 160 acres of land free if he lived on it for five years.

The problem of disbanding the army in 1865 was comparatively easy because soldiers could at once get rich land which they could sell sooner than other settlers because they could deduct the time of their service in the war from the five years' residence required of others. If we had saved some of our best land, there would have been similar use for it by soldiers after the World War of the twentieth century.

The American people long believed that there would always be enough land for themselves and their children's children, and

so they gave it away to newcomers from Europe as well as to American soldiers and other citizens. Such an unheard-of chance to get land for nothing increased immigration so that 2,300,000 Europeans came to the United States during the ten years ending in 1870.

The rush to the West in 1865 surpassed that of the Forty-Niners. One man returning east from Denver passed in three days 3384 teams carrying people west to seek homes or to search for gold and silver.

Western freight service before the railroad.—In the closing year of the war (1865), twenty-one million pounds of goods were carried by overland freight companies between the Missouri River and the West. In that year the government paid fifteen and one half cents a pound for taking corn to Denver, making it cost $10.05 a bushel there and $17 in Salt Lake City. In the next year, the government shipped eighty-one million pounds of freight west from the Missouri River. The stores in some towns paid more than a hundred thousand dollars a year freight charges on goods which they sold. A farmer had to pay $500 for seed grain for sowing forty acres. Ax handles cost $5 each, and matches, fifty cents a box. The freight charges were a staggering burden on the pioneer and they delayed the growth of the West.

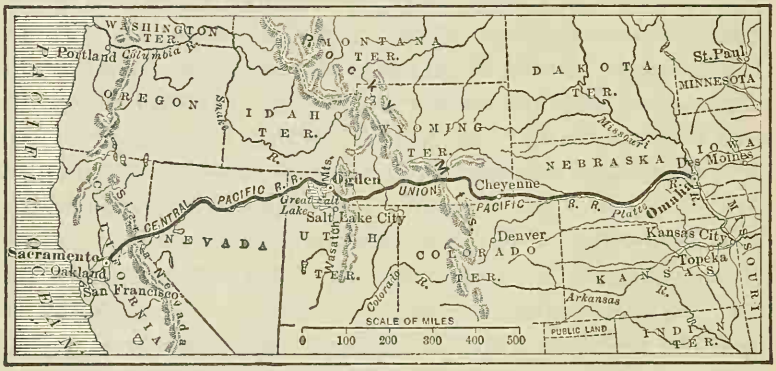
It is necessary to know facts like these to answer the question, often asked to-day: "Why did the government offer to give as much land as is found in New York state to the builders of a transcontinental railroad?"

The need of a transcontinental railroad.—The cheaper carriage of freight was only one of the reasons for extending the railroad to the Pacific. During the progress of the Civil War there were rumors that the people of the Pacific slope intended to start a republic of their own. New York was in much closer connection with England than with the far West, because the railroad then stopped at the Missouri River. Fears of losing the remote West were increased by a Confederate invasion of New Mexico, and they caused Congress in 1862 to vote money to aid

two companies in building a transcontinental railroad. Sufficient private capital could not be had because there was much doubt as to whether a road running through the long stretch of prairie and across the mountains could be made to pay.

The statesmen of this period deserve great credit for seeing clearly that building a railroad to link the states of the far West with those of the East was as necessary for the preservation of the Union as fighting.

The first transcontinental railroad.—The reason why Congress promised to help two companies to build the transcontinental



THE FIRST TRANSCONTINENTAL RAILROAD, 1869

railroad was because it could be finished more quickly in that way. The Union Pacific Company started to build its line west from Omaha, which was the terminus of a railroad from the East. The Central Pacific Company began at Sacramento to build its road east. By increasing the amount of aid to an average of $32,000 in money and 12,800 acres of public land for every mile of road built, Congress started between these two companies the greatest race of its kind in the history of the world. Each company wished to build as many miles as possible so as to get all it could of the national government's reward.

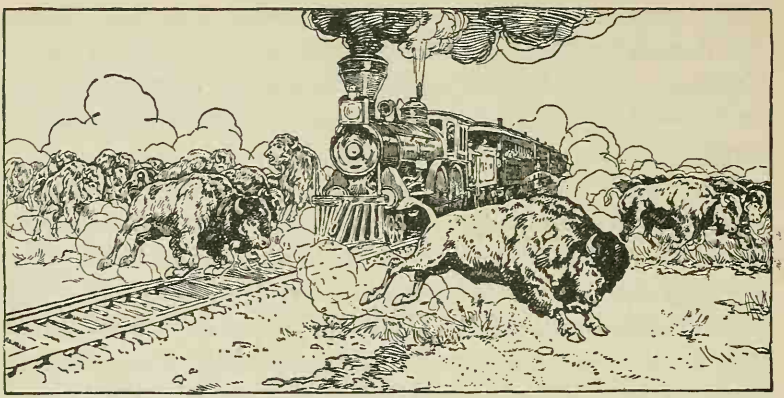
The building of this road was not an ordinary commercial event. It was like a heroic enterprise, of which Homer or Virgil

might have sung. There was hard fighting with the Indians, who sometimes surprised the builders and drove them away, scalping some and burning others at the stake. As the enthusiasm increased, an army of 25,000 workmen struggled to see which company could build the most miles of road.

Newspaper men came and reported the contest between the two companies as if it had been a football game. One day the Union Pacific laid six miles of track. The next day the Central Pacific laid seven. Seven and a half miles was the score of the Union Pacific the next day. The Central Pacific declared it could lay ten miles in one working day and accepted the Union Pacific's wager of $10,000 that it could not. A Central Pacific force of four thousand men, mostly Chinese, started to lay the ten miles of track at seven one morning. Eight Irishmen handled the heavy rails. The total weight of material put in place that day was four and one-third million pounds. At seven o'clock, the end of the working day, ten miles and two hundred feet of track had been laid. Laying some parts of the track was a different story. It required one million pounds of powder to blast fifteen tunnels through the Sierra Nevada.

The road, nearly 2000 miles in length, was finished in seven years, one half the estimated time. On the day when the two companies joined their tracks near Ogden, Utah (May 10, 1869), there was a celebration from New York to San Francisco. This was a greater event than the winning of most battles. The railroad had annihilated the distance which threatened to be a lasting barrier between the East and the far West.

Rapid changes in the West.—People were now no longer compelled to cross the prairies, the mountains, and the alkali plains in a stagecoach. By 1885 there were four lines of railroad running to the Pacific coast. It no longer cost fifteen cents a pound to carry to market the millions of bushels of corn raised on the great plains. These railroads took settlers and their supplies to the West and brought back its produce. As a result of rapid growth after the building of the transcontinental railroads,



HERD OF BUFFALOES CROSSING A RAILROAD TRACK ON THE PLAINS

the United States census reported in 1890 that the frontier had ceased to exist.

Herds of buffaloes large enough to stop railroad trains soon gave way to herds of cattle which pastured on the open plains and at the end of the season were rounded up by cowboys and sent to Kansas City and Chicago for beef. One of the Presidents of the United States (Roosevelt) was for a while a cowboy. Wyoming Territory alone was pasturing a million cattle and sheep.

Fields of grain soon took the place of many of these pastures. "Wheat seems to have moved out West," said a miller east of the Mississippi. At the beginning of the Civil War about fifteen per cent of the wheat crop was raised west of the Mississippi. Soon after the Union Pacific railroad crossed the plains, thirty per cent came from west of that river. From 1860 to 1880 the Dakota crop of wheat increased from hardly anything to nearly three million bushels a year. Kansas produced over a hundred million bushels of corn in 1880.

Mining also prospered after the railroads came. The mining settlement of Leadville, Colorado, grew like a mushroom to be a city of fifteen thousand. It sent away every month (1880) a million dollars' worth of gold, silver, and lead. It was situated

ten thousand feet up in the mountains, so high that the miners could not boil their beans. Science, as well as the railroads, had come to the aid of the miners and had shown them secrets, unknown to the Forty-Niners, of extracting various metals from unpromising-looking rock.

The farther West saw in rapid succession the fur trader and the miner, the simple trail and the stagecoach, the hunter of buffalo and the herder of cattle, men building railroads, and farmers.

Increase in population.—The people who settled the West came from the older states and from Europe. In some territories there were settlers from every state in the Union except California and Oregon. Four years after the first transcontinental railroad had been built, nearly half a million immigrants came to the United States in one year. In seven years after the completion of the first Pacific railroad, Colorado had enough population to become the centennial state (1876). From 1860 to 1880 Washington Territory increased 500 per cent; Kansas, 800 per cent; and Nebraska, 1500 per cent. In the latter part of the eighties, after the railroads had made Dakota accessible, farmers flocked to that territory in such numbers that some of its counties with hardly any inhabitants in the winter were well populated by the end of summer. Such a rapid increase in population under such conditions has happened only this one time in the history of the world.

New states in the far West.—The admission of Minnesota (1858) completed the tier of five states bordering on the west bank of the Mississippi River. West of that tier and of Texas only six states were admitted to the Union during the first hundred years after the Declaration of Independence. These six were California (1850), Oregon (1859), Kansas (1861), Nevada (1864), Nebraska (1867), and Colorado (1876).

In Harrison's one administration (1889–1893) that record of a hundred years was equaled, for six more states were added—North Dakota, South Dakota, Montana, and Washington (in

1889), and Idaho and Wyoming (in 1890). When these six were admitted, a northern belt of states extended for the first time from the Atlantic to the Pacific.

After Utah was made a state in 1896, there remained in the far West only three territories, which did not become states until the twentieth century (Oklahoma, New Mexico, and Arizona).

INDIANS ATTACKING A SETTLEMENT IN MINNESOTA, 1862

The Indians.—Our country sent whole tribes of Indians west of the Mississippi with the promise that they would not be molested there. When the white people rushed to the West, they kept crowding the Indians out of their best lands and killing the buffaloes on which they depended for meat. The red men became nearly frantic and attacked the whites. The list of battles with the Indians for fourteen years (1868–1882) fills more than a hundred printed pages. The most noted of these was General George A. Custer's fight (1876) with the Sioux Indians on the

Little Big Horn River in Montana. The Indians overwhelmed him in numbers. He and the two hundred and sixty-two soldiers with him fought until the last one fell. Tennyson's poem, *The Charge of the Light Brigade*, tells of English heroes. Custer's fight was more heroic, for not one "rode back." Our youth should remember that the skies overarching prairie and mountain in every western state look down on the graves of the men who lost their lives in the winning of the West.

Millions of dollars were spent in fighting Indians and millions more in buying their land and hiring them to live in idleness on rations supplied by the United States. As a rule each tribe kept a small part of its land, called a reservation.

The Dawes Bill, passed by Congress in 1887, provided for the gradual breaking up of reservations into farms to be given to individual Indians to hold and work. They were not allowed to sell this land for twenty-five years. A later special act permitted an Indian who showed himself able to manage his own affairs to have the full rights of citizenship before the end of that time. This legislation which gave the Indians land as individuals and not as tribes was a landmark in the passing away of the wild Indian. The proper education of Indian youth helped make the new generation cease to wish to be wild. The Indian has thus been given a chance to become a self-reliant citizen and a voter, an opportunity that had been granted long before to every European immigrant.

The rush to Oklahoma.—The largest reservation was the fertile tract known as Indian Territory, from which the state of Oklahoma was later formed. The whites were ordered to keep out, but as public land became scarcer they would not obey, and so Congress finally bought the unoccupied part of the territory from the Indians. President Harrison proclaimed that lands would be given away in Oklahoma to those first entering the territory after twelve o'clock, noon, of April 22, 1889. Fifty thousand people gathered at the boundary line on that day. In order that all might have an equal chance, a bugle was blown at

THE RUSH TO CLAIM THE BEST LANDS IN OKLAHOMA, APRIL 22, 1889

exactly noon, and the people started in a mad rush to get the choice lands. One man drove his wagon so fast over the rough ground that his wife and a coop of chickens bounced off, but he did not stop. Another man carrying a heavy bundle ran six miles in an hour and then fell exhausted on his claim.

On the morning of April 22, the site of Guthrie was bare prairie. By the middle of that afternoon the town was laid out and an hour later a city council was elected. The next day saw 8000 people living in tents within its limits. In a week it had a church, school, newspaper, and bank. The early pioneers would have thought a story like this as improbable as a fairy tale.

Influence of the frontier.—The first colonial settlements were made on a frontier. For two hundred and eighty years our country had a frontier. It is unfortunate that it no longer exists to train such men as George Washington, Thomas Jefferson, Andrew Jackson, Abraham Lincoln, and Theodore Roosevelt. The conditions of frontier life developed the American traits of ingenuity, self-reliance, and independence. The frontier was the greatest single cause of our belief in equality.

The frontier measured men by what they did, not by what they said, nor by what their ancestors had done for them. There was no bondage to superior birth, to fashion, or to custom, which had kept Europeans half slaves. The influence of the frontier made our ancestors, almost as soon as they landed, begin to differ from those of the same race in Europe.

The American public school is the great agency which continues the influence of the frontier. In Europe, the children of the wealthy went to one school and those of the poor to another. It was fortunate that the frontier could have only one school for the children of all. Our public schools still follow the fashion of the frontier and continue to be a common meeting place for the children of all classes. In this way, the influence of the frontier for democracy, for the common mingling of all classes, survives in our public school system.

Summary of Points of Emphasis for Review.—(1) The location of the frontier in 1860, (2) why the frontier line remained nearly stationary for half a century, (3) the central region as Mark Twain saw it on the Overland Stage route, (4) how messages were carried across the continent before the telegraph, (5) why there was a rush westward after the Civil War, (6) freight charges before the railroads, (7) need of transcontinental railroad, (8) building the Union and Central Pacific railroads, (9) how the railroads changed the West, (10) new western states, (11) unjust treatment of the Indian, who is driven to the warpath, (12) how the Indian problem was solved, (13) the settlement of Oklahoma, (14) the influence of the frontier upon American life.

Activities.—Read or ask your teacher to read to you some passages from *Roughing It*, by Mark Twain.

Imagine yourself "Buffalo Bill," and write a letter to an eastern friend to describe your early life.

Give a three-minute talk on the growth of the West, as it appeared to an Indian.

Make a moving or progressive picture tape on strips of paper, from three to five inches wide, pasted together, end on end, so as to be sufficiently long. Show the development of the West by cutting out pictures and pasting them on the tape, or by making original drawings showing in order the Indian, buffalo, hunter, fur trader, miner, Oregon home seeker, stagecoach, pony express, telegraph, railroad, cowboy with cattle, Roosevelt in Dakota, farmer with fields of wheat and corn. This will furnish hints for the pageant suggested on the following page.

Answer the question at the end of the section headed "Western freight service before the railroad" (p. 449).

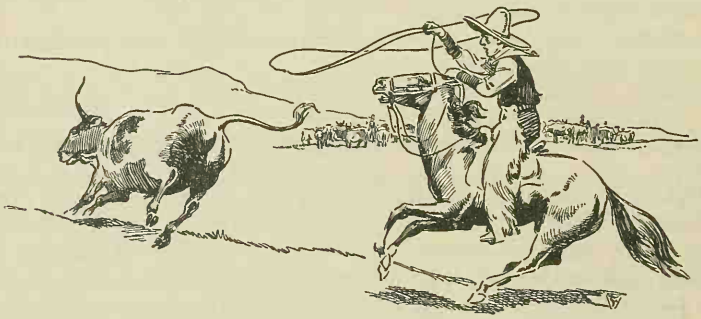
Write one hundred words on the subject, "Why I am Sorry (or Glad) that the Frontier has Disappeared." (The teacher should read to the class enough from Turner's *Frontier in American History* to show how the frontier helped make our democracy what it is. This is one of the important facts in our history.)

Present a pageant called "The Growth of the West." In successive scenes the children should take the parts of the various types characteristic of the West. The Oregon Trail should be shown with its followers succeeding each other in proper order. Ingenuity will find a way to present the Indian, trapper, fur trader, miner, buffalo, stagecoach, cowboy with cattle, railroad, and farmer with wheat and corn.

References for Teachers.—Hough, *The Passing of the Frontier* (Chron. of Am.); Sparks, *National Development*, XV., XVI.; Paxson, *The New Nation*, IX.; Turner, *Frontier in Am. Hist.*; Paxson, *The Last Am. Frontier*, XI.-XXII.; Beard, *Contemporary Am. Hist.*, 1–46; Adams, *Log of a Cowboy;* Hart, *Am. Hist. Told by Contemporaries*, IV., 515–517, 649–651; Wister, *The Virginian* (fiction).

For Pupils.—Roosevelt, *Stories of the Great West*, 109–254; Barstow, *Progress of a United People* (Century Hist. Readers), 36–69, 135–140; Fairbanks, *The Western U. S.*, 187–214; Hart, *Source Book of Am. Hist.*, 366–369; *Western Frontier Stories Retold from St. Nicholas;* Shinn, *The Story of the Mine.*

Fiction: Altsheler, *Horsemen of the Plains; Last of the Chiefs;* Clemens, *Roughing It;* Garland, *Son of the Middle Border; Boy Life on the Prairie;* Grinnell, *Jack, the Young Ranchman; Jack Among the Indians;* Jackson, *Ramona;* Otis, *Seth of Colorado.*



Western Cowboy

CHAPTER XXXI

A NEW INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION (1865-1900)

A landmark in our history.—The first industrial revolution (Chapter XX) followed the use of steam and of the new inventions that moved the industries of spinning and weaving from the fireside to the factory. Between the close of the Civil War and the end of the nineteenth century, there were wonderful changes in manufacturing, transportation, and farming. We call these changes the "new industrial revolution." A knowledge of its causes is necessary to explain twentieth-century unrest, labor troubles, laws, social-welfare aims, and the new policy of the United States toward the world.

Why the period is called a "revolution."—A revolution means a great change, sometimes a complete overturning. This period is called a revolution for several reasons. (1) It used machinery and developed manufactures on a vaster scale than the world had ever known. (2) It caused a striking increase in the number of wage earners, that is, of those who worked for others instead of for themselves. (3) It altered the rank of the United States among the nations of the earth. (4) Old ideas of government and education began to give way to new ones.

If a Rip Van Winkle had fallen asleep at the close of the Civil War and awakened in 1900, he would not have understood simple statements like these: "I telephoned Mary to come on her bicycle." "We need an antitrust law." "He is a regular dynamo." "There are too many millionaires." "Turn on the electric light." "Take the trolley to the next town." He might have known what a "roadscraper" meant, but not a "skyscraper" or a "manual-training school" or "steel rails." Such a sleeper would have been bewildered at the number of things that he would have had to learn anew.

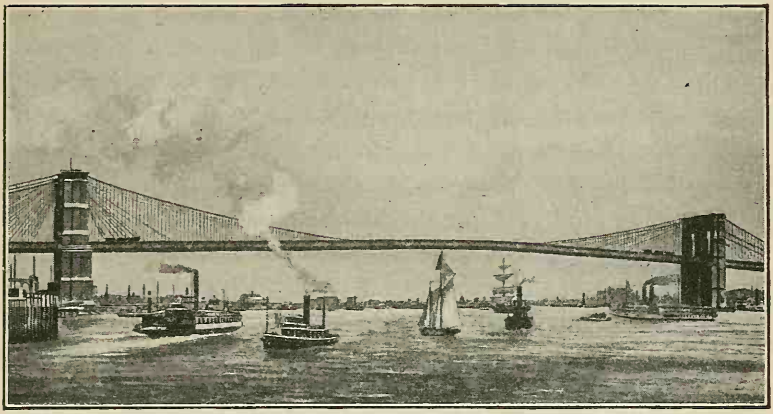
Iron.—The first cause of the new industrial revolution was the discovery of great quantities of iron ore and of easier and quicker ways of smelting it. Iron was known in ancient times, but it was difficult and expensive to make until the last century. When the ancient Greeks and Romans were doing such great things for the world, they were handicapped by the scarcity of iron. Conquering kings regarded it as a precious metal and brought it home as part of their spoils. During the first half of the nineteenth century Americans often smelted iron ore by using the bellows-and-charcoal method shown in Egyptian pictures thirty-five centuries before. It would have taken 130,000 such workers to make as much iron as one twentieth-century blast furnace can produce.

Improved way of making steel.—Iron was not strong enough to perform the many new tasks demanded of it until it was changed into steel. This was such a slow and expensive process that at the beginning of this period (1865) steel was used less than aluminum is now.

WILLIAM KELLY

First inventor of the quick and cheap method of steel making commonly called the Bessemer process. The patent for this, in the United States, was refused to Bessemer and given to Kelly.

William Kelly (1811–1888), an American born in Pittsburgh, saw at his ironworks in Kentucky a mass of molten iron raised to white heat when a current of cold air struck it. The oxygen in the air was combining with the carbon in the iron and burning out its impurities. He then tried a forced draft of air on molten iron and discovered (1851) the new way of making steel. He could produce steel as quickly as a loaf of bread could be baked; but many



SUSPENSION BRIDGE, SUPPORTED BY CABLES OF STEEL WIRE

This is the oldest of three bridges connecting Manhattan and Brooklyn boroughs in the city of New York. Its construction was begun in 1872 by John Roebling, and completed by his son in 1883, at a cost of $15,000,000. The central span is 1595 feet long. The bridge carries two roadways, two elevated railroad and two street railroad tracks, and in the center a wide walk for pedestrians. About a quarter of a million people cross this bridge every twenty-four hours.

years of struggle and experiment were to follow before he could perfect his invention. Americans did not promptly adopt Kelly's method because they thought that a man must be crazy who said that air was a better fuel than charcoal for making steel. They also believed that only the English knew how to make good steel.

The man best known for the new method of changing iron to steel in twenty minutes was Henry Bessemer (1813–1898), an Englishman. He learned (1856), like Kelly, that forced drafts of air would quickly burn the impurities out of molten iron. Bessemer worked at his method until he could produce for $50 a ton as good steel as that which had cost $250 when made by the old way. The United States adopted Kelly's and Bessemer's method after the Civil War. Near the end of the century, steel rails could be bought for $17 a ton.

The new process of making steel cheaply has been called the third greatest invention in the history of the modern world, the printing press and the steam engine alone being more important.

An age of steel.—The new industrial age was an age of steel. The modern production of almost anything on a large scale causes a demand for steel. The machines that make things, the frames of the factories, the railways that carry products, need steel. When a farmer plants a field of wheat, he causes a demand for steel in the plow, drill, reaper, thresher, and rollers for grinding flour. It is interesting to trace how a demand for a suit of clothes, a pound of coffee, the publication of a book of poems, or attendance at moving pictures is a demand for steel. A commercial traveler with imagination went to Texas to prove to the stock raisers that they should buy steel. He had thirty unruly animals put in a field fenced with barbed wire at San Antonio. The Texans said the wire would break like strings, but it held. He became a millionaire from the manufacture of steel wire.

The United States becomes the greatest manufacturing nation.—For the first hundred years of our national existence (1776–1876), the United States gave most of its attention to agriculture and imported many of its manufactured articles, including most of its steel. At the end of the Civil War, three nations surpassed the United States in manufactures, namely, (1) Great Britain, (2) France, and (3) Germany. At the end of the nineteenth century we stood first. The fact that we manufactured more than we could use at home caused President McKinley to say at the beginning of the twentieth century that the time had come to cultivate "a policy of good will and friendly trade relations with all countries."

How the United States won first place in manufactures.—The United States won first place in manufacturing partly because of its natural resources. Coal and iron stand first on the list of necessities for manufactures. The countries bordering on the Mediterranean are handicapped because of lack of coal. The United States has more coal than any other nation. We were not sure about our iron until after the middle of the nineteenth century. There were Indian legends of mountains of ore in

northern Minnesota. In order to learn whether these were like the stories of gold which the Indians told the Spaniards, an American explorer went (1845) to test their truth and found a "mountain a hundred and fifty feet high, of solid ore, which looked as bright as a bar of iron just broken." This and other deposits found later showed that the United States had more iron than any other nation.

In order to win the race in manufactures, the United States needed to put on the seven-league boots of transportation and machinery. We built more miles of railroad and used more machinery than any other nation. In the ten years between 1870 and 1880, railroad mileage increased nearly seventy-five per cent while population was growing thirty per cent. By 1885 four railroads were built to the Pacific. Our railroads carried freight for lower rates than those of any other nation.

Inventions in many fields.—The inventiveness of Americans helped their country to lead in manufactures. Foreign travelers wondered at the number of our inventions. Our inventors said: "Let us try to give the workers in every field a hundred hands," and they aided human labor in every possible way. Machines for washing clothes, setting type, writing letters, sweeping carpets, stopping trains, and peeling apples multiplied the efficiency of human labor and saved time.

American steel is not made with hands. Visitors to steel mills that roll out 6,000,000 pounds of steel a day are surprised to see not more than a dozen men on the floor. Matter obeys mind, and all that man seems to do is to pull levers and press buttons. An Englishman toward the end of the nineteenth century estimated that machinery enabled an American workman to turn out more than double the product of a British laborer.

Only three American patents were issued in 1790, the year in which George Washington secured the passage of the first patent law. A little more than a century later, over 30,000 patents a year were granted.

Combination and large-scale production.—The growth of manufactures was aided in this period by combining under one efficient management a number of different companies that made the same things or supplied the raw materials necessary for their manufacture. Such combinations could lower the cost of production. For instance, Andrew Carnegie (1835–1919) brought under one management mines of iron ore in Minnesota, the steamers and railroads needed to bring the ore to Pittsburgh, the coking coal for making steel, and the various plants required for the manufacture of different kinds of steel. He absorbed competitors and enlarged his own plants until he could make steel cheaper than small producers because he manufactured it in enormous quantities. Large production enabled him to afford the best managers and equipment and to throw machinery on the scrap heap as soon as anything better appeared.

The largest mill in ancient Athens ground only two barrels of flour a day. Such grinding was slow and expensive, but less expensive than for each family to prepare its own flour. Grinding flour in Minneapolis became so great a business that one of her mills could produce more than ten thousand barrels of flour a day in this period. Such large-scale production made bread cheaper for all.

In the middle of the nineteenth century, passengers had to change cars eleven times in going from Albany, New York, to Buffalo. Transportation for both passengers and freight was much improved when the short lines combined to form a through railroad system from New York to Chicago (1873).

Immigration aids industry.—Immigration helped the industrial revolution in two ways:

(1) It increased our population until we had the largest home market in the world for our manufactures. Between 1860 and 1900 immigrants and their children added twenty millions to our population. This addition was more than half the population of Great Britain (1901), our nearest competitor in manufactures.

(2) In the last part of the nineteenth century, the majority of our immigrants came from southern Europe and were of a different racial stock from most Americans. Before 1885 nearly all our immigrants had come from northwestern Europe and belonged to the same race as the early settlers. The newcomers from southern Europe did not care to become farmers but preferred to work in steel mills, mines, and factories, and thus aided in the new industrial revolution. These southern European immigrants made it possible to manufacture steel and other things more cheaply because they were willing to work for low wages. The lower cost of production enabled our manufacturers to compete more easily in foreign markets.

How the new South helped industrial development.—The North could not by itself have secured such a lead in manufactures without the aid of the South. The old South had the idea that it was not so aristocratic to engage in buying, selling, or making things as it was to live on a landed estate and have the work done by others. This period saw a new South which looked at work in a different way. "We have fallen in love with work," said a noted Southern orator (Henry W. Grady), speaking of the people of the new South.

The old South had left the manufacturing of its cotton to the North and to foreign nations. By 1900, the South had nearly half of the cotton factories in the United States. The old South never dreamed that it had vast mineral resources in a section 700 miles long and sometimes 150 miles wide, extending from West Virginia into Alabama. In the Civil War a crossroads blacksmith shop marked the site of a future Alabama city that had a population of 38,000 in 1900 and nearly 200,000 twenty years later. This was Birmingham, which is situated in a region where large quantities of coal and iron are mined almost side by side. This city became the Pittsburgh of the South in manufacturing iron and steel. Ten years before the end of the nineteenth century, the South was producing as much iron and coal as the entire country at the end of the Civil War.

Electricity.—The last quarter of the nineteenth century harnessed electricity to aid in the rapid development of manufactures and to add to the comfort of the people. When John Tyndall, an English scientist, came to the United States (1872) and lectured on electricity, he had to carry his own battery to furnish a current for his experiments. Seven years after Tyndall's visit, Thomas A. Edison (1847–) found how to make a practical incandescent light, such as we now use in our electric light bulbs. The electric light is one of the great conveniences invented in this period; it and the phonograph are perhaps the most famous of Edison's many inventions.

Electricity was also used for power to run trolley cars and many kinds of machinery. After Cyrus W. Field perfected the Atlantic cable (1866), there was an extended use of electricity which increased foreign trade and bound the world more closely together.

The telephone.—The new study of electricity made possible what seemed to many the greatest miracle of all inventions. Alexander Graham Bell (1847–1922), born in Edinburgh, Scotland, came to the United States and taught the deaf and dumb in Boston. His work with them interested him in making experiments that led to his great invention. One of his pupils was Mabel Hubbard, a girl of fifteen. She could neither hear nor talk, but she was unusually interested in Bell's work. When he was twenty-nine years old, he had the telephone ready to be exhibited at the Centennial Exposition in Philadelphia (1876). The day before the judges were scheduled to inspect his invention, he told his favorite pupil that he could not take the time to make the trip. Acting on her father's advice, she coaxed him to go to the station with her in time to catch the train for Philadelphia, where she would meet her father. Bell went to the station but refused to take the trip. When she broke down and wept, this speechless language was so appealing that he jumped on the train. The next day he was ready to show his telephone, but the judges were tired when his turn came. They

thought that his invention was nothing but a toy, and they decided to make no further examinations that day. "That meant," says Bell, "that they would never see the telephone." At that moment the emperor of Brazil, who had visited Bell's school for the deaf, caught sight of him and insisted on seeing his invention. The judges followed. When the emperor listened to the telephone a look of amazement came over his face and he cried, "It talks." A great English scientist then listened and said: "It does speak. It is the most wonderful thing I have seen in America." From the moment that the emperor of Brazil and the English scientist spoke, Bell was famous.

MABEL HUBBARD

The deaf pupil who encouraged Bell in his work. She afterward became his wife.

The great inventor did not forget his deaf and silent pupil. The historian can speak of them in the language of the happy fairy tale: "And they lived happily together ever after." Many a lonesome person on the farm also lived more happily after the telephone came.

In twelve years after its invention the telephone was taking a million messages a day. No other nation has so many telephones as the United States. Their use makes it possible for more business to be done. The telephone has thus become one of the causes of the nation's industrial advancement. No mathematician has yet been able to compute the hours of time which the telephone saves every day.

Wage workers.—The worker for wages was not common in the early history of this country because a man could make more by working for himself on free or cheap rich land. For a long time there were few who were not farmers. Men and their families worked with their own tools outdoors in raising crops,

and indoors in spinning, weaving, and other household industries. When colonial farmers needed help they tried to get either slaves or indentured servants (p. 148). The latter usually got land and worked for themselves as soon as their term of service expired. At the time of the Declaration of Independence and framing of the Constitution there were few wage earners.

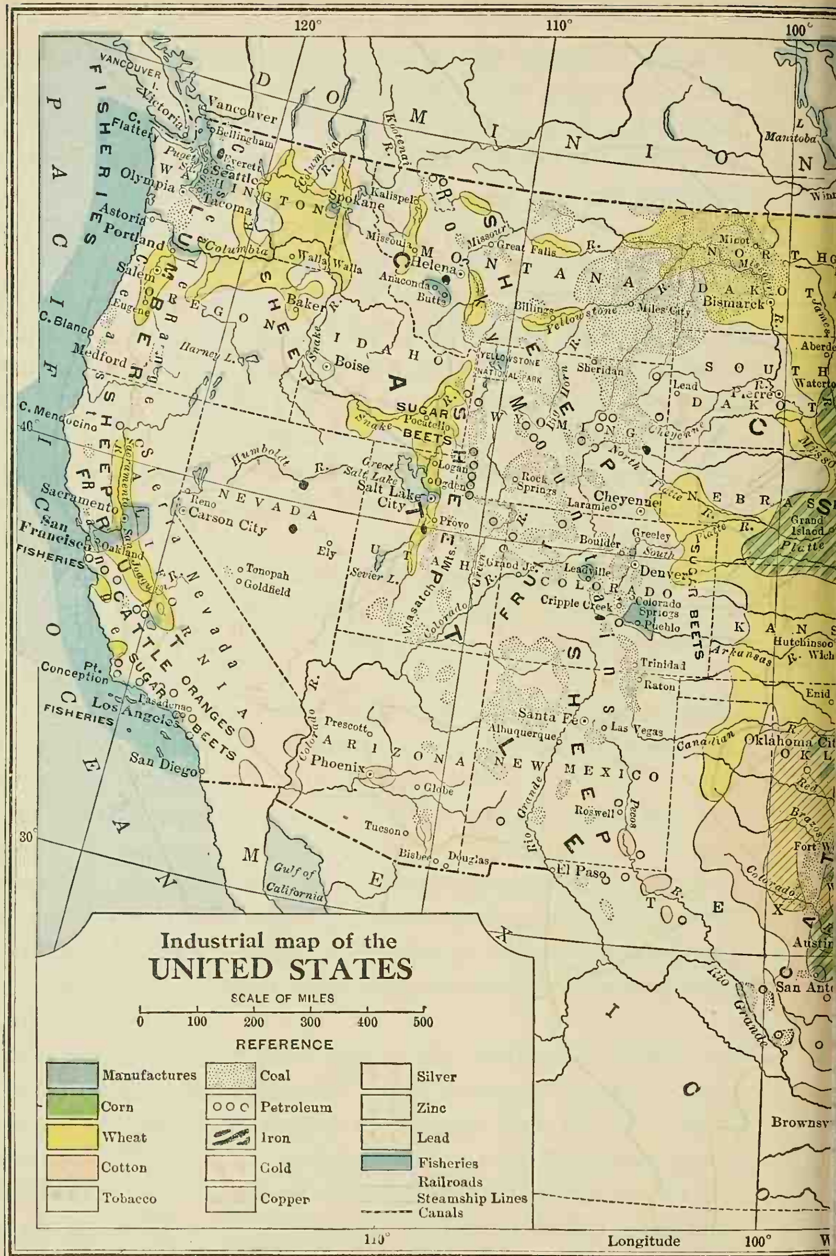
There came a time (Chapter XX) when expensive machinery driven by steam or water was introduced. Single families could not afford these machines, which were set up in factories. An increasing number of people stopped working for themselves and received wages for working for the owners of machines and factories. The new industrial revolution, after the Civil War, caused a striking increase in wage earners. Between 1870 and 1890 they increased 130 per cent, or more than twice as fast as the general population.

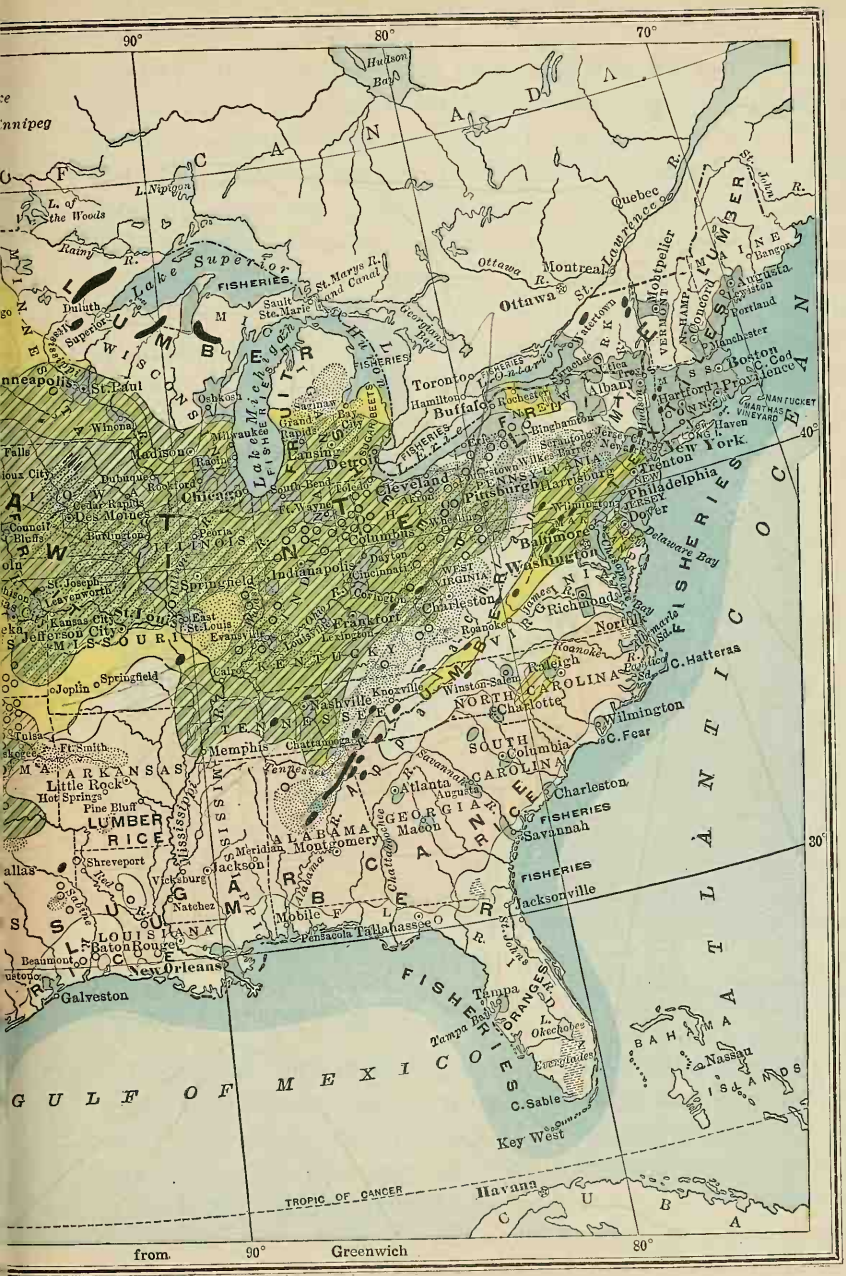
The increase in wage earners aided in causing a rapid growth of cities and towns. By the end of the nineteenth century more than forty per cent of all the people in the United States lived in cities of 2500 or more.

The rapidly growing number of wage earners marks a turning point in our history. They are exerting more and more influence in making the history of the United States.

Labor organizations.—One of the ways in which the wage earner has shown his influence is by forming labor unions to improve his condition. In Washington's administration there were a few unions of crafts or trades, such as those of the carpenters, shoemakers, and printers. Unions did not become powerful while free land lasted, since men dissatisfied with their wages could get a farm.

The first universal labor union, the Knights of Labor, was formed in this great industrial period (1869); it reached a membership of 700,000 in twenty years, and then declined, partly because it did not give enough liberty to the individual unions of which it was composed. The American Federation of Labor (organized 1881) took the opposite course: it allowed each trade


Industrial map of the
UNITED STATES
SCALE OF MILES
0 100 200 300 400 500
REFERENCE
Manufactures
Corn
Wheat
Cotton
Tobacco
Coal
Petroleum
Iron
Gold
Copper
Silver
Zinc
Lead
Fisheries
Railroads
Steamship Lines
Canals
120°
110°
100°
30°
40°
Longitude
PACIFIC OCEAN
FISHERIES
DOMINION
WASHINGTON
OREGON
IDAHO
MONTANA
WYOMING
NEVADA
UTAH
CALIFORNIA
ARIZONA
NEW MEXICO
COLORADO
NORTH DAKOTA
SOUTH DAKOTA
NEBRASKA
KANSAS
OKLAHOMA
TEXAS
MEXICO
LUMBER
SHEEP
CATTLE
FRUIT
SUGAR BEETS
ORANGES
Vancouver
Victoria
Bellingham
Everett
Seattle
Tacoma
Olympia
Spokane
Kalispell
Walla Walla
Astoria
Portland
Salem
Eugene
Medford
Baker
Boise
Helena
Anaconda
Butte
Great Falls
Billings
Miles City
Bismarck
Minot
Pierre
Lead
Sheridan
Pocatello
Logan
Ogden
Salt Lake City
Provo
Rock Springs
Laramie
Cheyenne
Greeley
Boulder
Denver
Leadville
Cripple Creek
Colorado Springs
Pueblo
Trinidad
Raton
Santa Fe
Las Vegas
Albuquerque
Roswell
El Paso
Reno
Carson City
Ely
Tonopah
Goldfield
Sacramento
San Francisco
Oakland
Pasadena
Los Angeles
San Diego
Prescott
Phoenix
Globe
Tucson
Bisbee
Douglas
Grand Island
Hutchinson
Enid
Oklahoma City
Austin
San Antonio
Brownsville
C. Flattery
C. Blanco
C. Mendocino
Pt. Conception
Gulf of California
Great Salt Lake
Yellowstone National Park
Columbia R.
Snake R.
Missouri R.
Yellowstone R.
Platte R.
Arkansas R.
Canadian R.
Rio Grande
Colorado R.
Humboldt R.
Sevier L.
Harney L.
Wasatch Mts.
Sierra Nevada


90°
80°
70°
40°
30°
Hudson Bay
CANADA
Lake Superior
FISHERIES
LUMBER
Duluth
St. Paul
Minneapolis
Winona
Madison
Milwaukee
Racine
Oshkosh
Green Bay
Chicago
Dubuque
Rockford
Cedar Rapids
Des Moines
Council Bluffs
Burlington
Peoria
ILLINOIS
Springfield
St. Joseph
Leavenworth
Kansas City
St. Louis
East St. Louis
Jefferson City
MISSOURI
Joplin
Springfield
Fort Smith
Little Rock
Hot Springs
Pine Bluff
ARKANSAS
RICE
Shreveport
Meridian
Jackson
Vicksburg
Natchez
Baton Rouge
LOUISIANA
New Orleans
Galveston
Beaumont
Memphis
Nashville
Knoxville
TENNESSEE
Louisville
Cairo
KENTUCKY
Evansville
Indianapolis
Cincinnati
Columbus
Dayton
Toledo
Detroit
Cleveland
Buffalo
Rochester
Toronto
Hamilton
Lake Michigan
Lake Huron
Lake Erie
Lake Ontario
Sault Ste. Marie
St. Marys R.
Welland Canal
Ottawa R.
Montreal
Quebec
St. Lawrence R.
Ottawa
Kingston
Albany
Utica
Syracuse
Rochester
Binghamton
Scranton
Wilkesbarre
Harrisburg
Pittsburgh
Wheeling
Charleston
Frankfort
Lexington
Roanoke
Norfolk
Richmond
Washington
Baltimore
Philadelphia
Trenton
New York
Wilmington
Dover
Delaware Bay
Chesapeake Bay
WEST VIRGINIA
VIRGINIA
Raleigh
Winston-Salem
Charlotte
NORTH CAROLINA
SOUTH CAROLINA
Columbia
Augusta
Atlanta
Macon
GEORGIA
Savannah
Charleston
FISHERIES
ALABAMA
Montgomery
Mobile
Pensacola
Tallahassee
Jacksonville
FISHERIES
Tampa
Tampa Bay
ORANGES
L. Okeechobee
Everglades
Key West
C. Sable
BAHAMA ISLANDS
Nassau
GULF OF MEXICO
ATLANTIC OCEAN
C. Hatteras
C. Fear
Portland
Boston
Providence
Hartford
New Haven
Bangor
Augusta
Lewiston
Montpelier
Concord
Manchester
Portsmouth
Newport
Worcester
Springfield
Albany
Troy
Utica
Syracuse
Rochester
Buffalo
Binghamton
Scranton
Wilkesbarre
Harrisburg
Reading
Lancaster
Trenton
Philadelphia
New York
Dover
Wilmington
Baltimore
Washington
Richmond
Norfolk
Roanoke
Raleigh
Winston-Salem
Charlotte
Columbia
Augusta
Charleston
Savannah
Jacksonville
Tallahassee
Pensacola
Mobile
Montgomery
Atlanta
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Natchez
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Shreveport
Baton Rouge
New Orleans
Galveston
Beaumont
Houston
Austin
San Antonio
Corpus Christi
Brownsville
Laredo
Monterrey
Saltillo
Chihuahua
Durango
Mazatlan
Guaymas
Hermosillo
Nogales
Tucson
Phoenix
Yuma
Los Angeles
San Diego
San Bernardino
San Francisco
Sacramento
Stockton
Fresno
Bakersfield
Monterey
Santa Barbara
Reno
Carson City
Virginia City
Salt Lake City
Ogden
Provo
Cheyenne
Denver
Colorado Springs
Pueblo
Leadville
Aspen
Grand Junction
Santa Fe
Albuquerque
Las Vegas
Taos
Trinidad
Pueblo
Omaha
Lincoln
Grand Island
North Platte
Kearney
Sioux City
Council Bluffs
Des Moines
Iowa City
Davenport
Rock Island
Peoria
Springfield
Quincy
Hannibal
St. Joseph
Leavenworth
Kansas City
Topeka
Wichita
Dodge City
Abilene
Salina
Hutchinson
Pueblo
Colorado Springs
Denver
Cheyenne
Laramie
Rawlins
Rock Springs
Evanston
Ogden
Salt Lake City
Provo
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Pueblo
Omaha
Lincoln
Grand Island
North Platte
Kearney
Sioux City
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Des Moines
Iowa City
Davenport
Rock Island
Peoria
Springfield
Quincy
Hannibal
St. Joseph
Leavenworth
Kansas City
Topeka
Wichita
Dodge City
Abilene
Salina
Hutchinson
TROPIC OF CANCER
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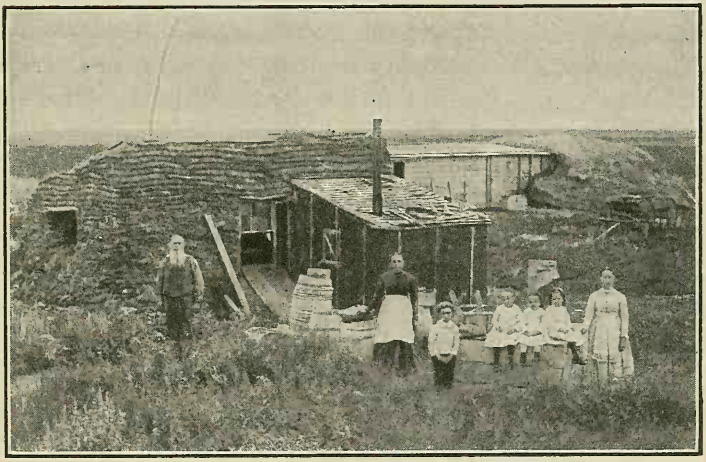
CUBA
from
90°
Greenwich
80°

liberty to decide matters that affected its own interests and required obedience to central authority only when the welfare of all was concerned. This Federation is made up "of such trade and labor unions as conform to its rules and regulations." The definition of a trade union that may obtain membership in the Federation is "any seven or more wage earners of good character following any trade or calling." The American Federation of Labor had a membership of 600,000 at the beginning of the twentieth century and more than 3,000,000 twenty years later.

The chief object of trade unions has been to shorten hours of labor, improve working conditions, and raise wages. The strongest weapon of the union is the strike.



TYPICAL SOD HOUSE

On the prairie, far from woods, the settler's first house was often made of sods. When the price of farm products was low, several years might pass before the farmer could save enough money to build a better house.

Unrest.—It would be natural to think that the rapid increase in machinery, means of transportation, and manufactures would have made every one well off and contented, but this was not the case. There were two long-continued periods of hard times in the last third of the nineteenth century. Farmers were especially unfortunate. New farm lands had been put in cultiva-

tion in advance of the needs of the country. Many farmers were in debt, and the price of corn was sometimes so low that they burned it because it was cheaper than other fuel. Workers also suffered from the competition of immigrants who lowered the standard of living because they were willing to work for lower wages.

There were frequent strikes of workingmen. Railroad employees on an eastern line started (1877) the greatest strike in our history when their wages were lowered for the fourth time in seven years. A mob in Pittsburgh burned miles of freight cars and destroyed ten million dollars' worth of property. Many were killed or wounded. The country was alarmed to find itself face to face with civil war. United States soldiers had to be called to suppress the rioting.

Third parties.—Unrest and dissatisfaction with existing laws are the chief cause of third political parties. History shows that a demand for a change is often first made by new political parties. They began the fight for woman suffrage, for national prohibition, and for laws to prevent corporations from abusing their power. The largest of the third parties in this period was called the "People's Party" or the "Populists." This organization, made up mostly of dissatisfied farmers and workingmen, polled more than a million votes (1892).

Although the Populists did not elect their presidential candidate, a number of the changes which they desired have since been made. Among these are a graduated income tax, a more flexible currency, postal savings banks, the secret ballot, restriction of undesirable immigration, shorter hours of labor, the election of senators by direct vote of the people. The Populists complained of "watered" stock, and some of them lived to see strict regulation of the amount of shares of stock which a railroad may issue.

Laws to regulate business.—Those who were dissatisfied with what the regular political parties had accomplished, wanted laws to restrain powerful combinations and to give the individual

more of a chance. Production on a large scale, or "big business" as it is often called, naturally developed with the nation's industrial growth. Misuse of the power of big business followed. Capitalists combined to monopolize certain products or kinds of business. They sometimes ruined competitors by underselling them and then raised prices. The railroads often gave big business secret rebates on freight while smaller competitors had to pay full charges.

There was a demand for laws to regulate big business where it dealt unfairly with its competitors and its customers. Congress passed a series of interstate commerce laws (the first in 1887), which ordered the railroads not to give rebates or to show favoritism among shippers of freight from one state to another. Congress also established (1887) a board known as the Interstate Commerce Commission, the duty of which was to see that the public was fairly treated by railroads carrying passengers and freight between states.

The Sherman Act (so called because it was proposed by Senator John Sherman of Ohio) was the first great antitrust law passed (1890) to curb monopolies. By a "trust" is meant a large corporation or combination of capital that controls a great part of any line of business. The Sherman Act forbade combinations "in restraint of trade." The courts have held that such restraint may result from selling any product below cost for the purpose of ruining a competitor or from any other kind of unfair competition. No convictions were secured under the Sherman Act until the twentieth century.

Education.—The growing industries caused a demand for more practical education. The introduction of such subjects as manual training and domestic science was an educational landmark. Education became broader and entered new fields. Agricultural and scientific colleges were founded to meet the new needs of the farm, the mine, and the factory. State universities grew rapidly; they often gave all the courses of the new scientific schools, as well as those of the older classical colleges.

A part of the impetus toward broader education came from Europe. Three million Americans visited the Centennial Exposition at Philadelphia (1876) and saw the foreign exhibits of woodwork, styles of architecture, designs of fabrics, and paintings. Americans had been too busy extending their farms and settlements to the Pacific to have the leisure which Europe used for the production and appreciation of art. Americans needed the artistic education which they received from the foreign exhibits. They began to buy better pictures and to put in the garret the glaring chromos which had hung on their walls. Manufacturers had more attractive fabrics designed, and drawing was better taught in the schools.

DAISY CHAIN AT VASSAR COLLEGE

One of the customs of Class Day at Vassar is the carrying of a great chain made of daisies. The dresses of these students show the fashion at the end of the nineteenth century.

For the first time in our history, girls were given an equal chance in education. More than half the pupils in the rapidly increasing high schools were girls. In the last year of the Civil War, Vassar College opened its doors as an institution planned to be "for the young women what Yale and Harvard are to the young men." Before the end of the nineteenth century every state university was open to women.

Summary of Points of Emphasis for Review.—(1) The new industrial revolution, (2) relation of iron and steel to industry, (3) the work of

Kelly and Bessemer, (4) how the United States was able to lead the world in manufactures, (5) inventiveness of Americans, (6) industrial combinations and their results, (7) how immigration aided industry, (8) the new South and industry, (9) new uses of electricity, (10) the telephone and how it aided business, (11) the increase of wage earners, (12) labor organizations, (13) unrest, (14) meaning of third parties, (15) laws to regulate business, (16) change in education.

Activities.—If a Rip Van Winkle accustomed to blowing out the lamp had gone to sleep in 1865 and awakened in 1900, explain some things that you would need to teach him about the conveniences of a modern home.

It has been said that the United States makes two pounds of steel a day for every man, woman, and child in our country. Explain in class and at home what becomes of so much steel.

Tell the result of your attempt to move around in your own home without touching something made by machinery.

What did Carnegie bring under his control to make the steel industry a success?

Make a list of the reasons for the increase in manufactures during the period 1865–1900.

Make a moving or progressive picture tape showing the development of communication since the earliest colonial times. The pictures may be either original drawings or illustrations cut out and pasted on the tape. Draw a diagram to show the connections of the first Atlantic cable.

In one sentence each give a definition of (1) a trust, (2) a trade union, (3) a strike.

Use not more than 100 written words to tell what laws were made before 1900 to regulate business.

In what ways is a workingman better off to-day than in 1865? Make a list of six common comforts or conveniences that were unknown then.

Write an imaginary wireless telegram to some one in the planet Mars, giving what you think might interest him most in this chapter.

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For Pupils.—Casson, *Romance of Steel;* Darrow, *Boys' Own Book of Great Inventions*, III., XIII., XIV., XV., XVIII.; Bachman, *Great Inventors and Their Inventions*, IX., XII., XIII.; Perry, *Four American Inventors*, 205–260; Rocheleau, *Great American Industries;* Holland, *Age of Invention* (Chron. of Am.), 128–219.

CHAPTER XXXII

NEW AIMS (1901-1909)

Theodore Roosevelt.—McKinley was the last President elected in the nineteenth century. After his death (1901) he was succeeded by Vice President Roosevelt.

Theodore Roosevelt (1858–1919) came from Knickerbocker (p. 110) stock. He was born in the city of New York, and graduated from Harvard. He was the last of our Presidents to receive frontier training. Soon after he left college, he went to the unsettled wilds of the southwestern part of what was then Dakota Territory. With his own rifle he killed the deer and antelope that supplied the meat for his table in the log house that he built.

The rough element used to call him "Four-Eyes" because he wore glasses, but he took the nickname good-naturedly and thus made friends. One night when he started to enter a little hotel on the prairie, he heard shooting on the inside. He went in and found a man who had been firing at the clock, scaring everybody. The bully, with a pistol in each hand, leaned over Roosevelt and said: "Four-Eyes is going to treat." Roosevelt knocked him down before he could aim. These frontier experiences taught Roosevelt to know all kinds of human beings and to act fearlessly and quickly in all emergencies. More than a quarter of a century later, when he was engaged in a hard political fight for the new Progressive party, a fanatic shot and dangerously wounded him while he was going to a hall to make a speech. Roosevelt went on the platform and made his address, saying that his frontier friends would not expect him to be a quitter in a fight just because he had been shot.

Roosevelt was for six years a Civil Service Commissioner (p. 428). We next find him, in rapid succession, Police Com-

ORCHARD ON IRRIGATED LAND IN THE WEST

These are young grapefruit trees in the Salt River valley. Irrigated lands, formerly deserts, now produce abundant crops and many kinds of fruit.

missioner of the city of New York, Assistant Secretary of the Navy, Lieutenant Colonel of the Rough Riders in the Spanish-American war, governor of New York, Vice President, President of the United States, African hunter, and South American explorer. Brazil named one of its rivers the Rio Teodoro (River Theodore) because he followed its little-known course through terrible jungles for nearly six hundred miles.

THEODORE ROOSEVELT
From a photograph made about 1904

Characteristics.—No one like him had ever before sat in the presidential chair. He had so many sides that it is difficult to describe him. Like an active boy, he wanted to do as many things as he could, and so he became a cowboy, athlete, soldier, writer, naturalist, hunter, President, and explorer.

One of his great characteristics was energy, the love of strenuous action. While he was President, "strenuous" became a common word in the nation's vocabulary.

One of the best tributes paid Roosevelt was written after his death by a Democrat, Franklin K. Lane, Secretary of the Interior in President Wilson's cabinet. Lane said: "However widely men may differ from him in matters of national policy, this thing men in their hearts would all wish—that their sons might have within them the spirit, the will, the strength, the manliness, the Americanism of Roosevelt."

What were the new aims?—The twentieth century started with an increased demand for social justice. This means the wel-

fare of every class, not the well-being of one class at the expense of another. Roosevelt defined social justice as "the square deal for everybody."

It is the business of social workers to-day to see that the welfare of the poor, the sick, the down and out, and the helpless child is not neglected, but social workers were not so common then as now. Roosevelt was the first social worker in the presidential chair. Jane Addams, a noted Chicago social worker, said that "he was the first President who really knew that there was a social question." When he was Police Commissioner of New York, he was an active social worker. He found two families eating, sleeping, and manufacturing tobacco in one room. He called this state of affairs social injustice to the weak and he tried to secure the passage of a tenement-house law that would make such a condition impossible. Sometimes, when the weather was very hot, he tramped most of the night among the tenements and saw with his own eyes "the gasping misery of the little children and of the worn-out mothers." He had the fire department sprinkle the streets and urged the health department to do its utmost to relieve the suffering.

A new note in presidential messages.—In his first message, Roosevelt announced his social creed in this way: "In the long run we shall all go up or down together." "All for each and each for all," was one of his favorite expressions.

Presidential messages in the past had never stooped to discuss the case of a poor factory girl who had lost her hand in the machinery. Roosevelt took up the cudgels for such a girl and demanded that the employer should be made liable for the injury and not be allowed to shift the whole of that terrible burden on her weak shoulders. His critics who preached the old gospel said that the girl had signed a contract to take the risk and that no law could annul a contract. He replied that she was forced to sign such an agreement to earn her bread and that he appealed to a higher law, the law of the "square deal." This new social gospel soon caused forty-two states to enact Workmen's Com-

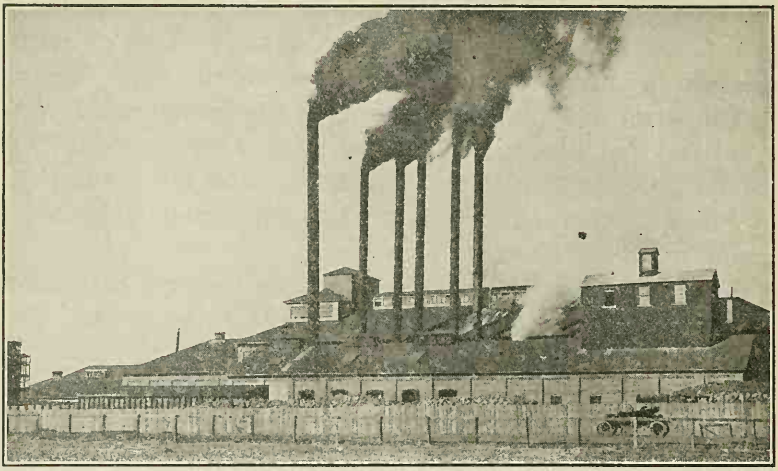
pensation Acts, which order payment for accidents to employees. The national Congress passed (1908) an act making railroads engaged in interstate commerce liable for injuries to employees.

The great coal strike.—Roosevelt's opponents called him "lawless" and "dangerous." He shocked many by saying: "I bound myself to treat the Constitution after the manner of Abraham Lincoln, as a document which put human rights above property when the two conflicted."

Roosevelt acted on this theory in settling the great anthracite strike (1902), the longest-continued large strike in our history. Without constitutional authority, he tried to force the mine owners to arbitrate. They replied that the mines were their own private property with which no one had a right to interfere. The strike dragged on for more than five months into cold weather. Roosevelt realized that the hospitals would soon be without fuel, and he determined to put human rights above property and to call in the United States army to work the mines. The owners, fearing that he might follow the methods of the frontier and do something "rash," at last consented to an arbitration that ended the strike. If he had not taken such a course, there might have been riots. Since then, Presidents have repeatedly interfered to end strikes.

Big business and its control.—Large combinations of capital, sometimes called "trusts," were extending their control over many lines of business, fixing prices and ruining competitors. Some of the great trusts were subscribing to the campaign funds of political parties. The man who opposed these great combinations of capital took his political life into his hands. Roosevelt fought them and secured the first conviction under the Sherman Act (p. 471), which forbade all combinations in restraint of trade. Within the next ten years, the Supreme Court of the United States ordered numbers of corporations to be dissolved into smaller companies.

There were two different ideas about the best way in which to deal with big business. (1) Some thought it should always be



BEET SUGAR FACTORY IN UTAH

The beet sugar industry is an example of industries carried on largely by great corporations. Many sugar beets are grown on irrigated land.

smashed. (2) Others said that smashing trusts usually raised prices. Such believed that big business can be managed more economically than small concerns and that a big country needs big business. They argued that it makes no difference how big or strong a man is if the police make him behave, and that the government ought to be strong enough to control the biggest business.

The government began to try the second method more effectively. It gave the Interstate Commerce Commission (by the Hepburn Act, 1906) the power (1) to fix interstate freight and passenger rates for railroads, and (2) to compel the railroads to file with the commission a monthly report of all earnings and expenses. It then made little difference how large a railroad system was. The Interstate Commerce Commission's supervision of the railroads has secured more honest management for the public.

Roosevelt recommended strict government control for other kinds of business. He aided in securing laws which (1) ordered

large corporations to keep for the inspection of the government full records of all their acts and expenses, and (2) forbade corporations to contribute money to any political party or candidate for office. These laws helped cure some of the worst evils of big business.

Food laws.—Other abuses also needed the attention of Congress. Many kinds of food and drugs were often adulterated. Fruit jellies sometimes contained no fruit. Articles as different as coffee, pepper, spice, vinegar, and maple sugar were commonly adulterated. Those who profited by adulterations or cheaper substitutes had been strong enough to delay for twenty-five years the passage of a law that remedied such abuses. Congress has no power to control such matters directly, but it can do so indirectly, through its regulation of interstate commerce.

Roosevelt, with popular opinion supporting him, helped secure the passage of two laws (1906): (1) the Meat Inspection Act, which ordered that only healthy animals should be killed for food to be transported from one state to another; and (2) the Food and Drugs Act, which prohibited any interstate commerce in adulterated or misbranded foods and drugs. A package is misbranded if its label is "false or misleading in any particular." Since this time, inspectors of the United States frequently examine packages of food and drugs to see if the contents agree with the label.

These two laws have protected both the health and the pockets of the public. Some patent medicines made people feel more vigorous (for a time) because they contained a large amount of alcohol. Under the law of 1906 all such preparations were required to carry labels stating plainly the percentage of alcohol used. When this became known, some well-known nostrums were driven off the market, but not until after many people had acquired the drink habit from their use.

Conservation.—Roosevelt fought to save the country's natural resources, such as its timber, coal, oil, water power, land. He convinced people that our natural resources were not so

nearly inexhaustible as was then generally believed. He consulted experts, who said that our petroleum might not last through the twentieth century; that the United States would soon need to import part of its lumber; and that the supply of our high-grade iron ore and coal was much smaller than most supposed. Lumber threatened to become so scarce and high that the masses could not be well housed.

The interests fight conservation.—Roosevelt found that private persons and corporations then owned four fifths of the nation's forests. He began to withdraw millions of acres of the remaining fifth and to add them to the national forest reservations so that they would be safe from speculators and corporations. Congress opposed him at every turn. It would not grant him money for the expenses of the National Conservation Commission that he had appointed. He then used the scientific bureaus in Washington to help him look after withdrawals of various natural resources. The speculators that were steadily getting possession of valuable public lands were strong enough to secure the passage of a law that kept him from using such help. In spite of all obstacles, he kept on putting various government lands beyond the reach of the speculators.

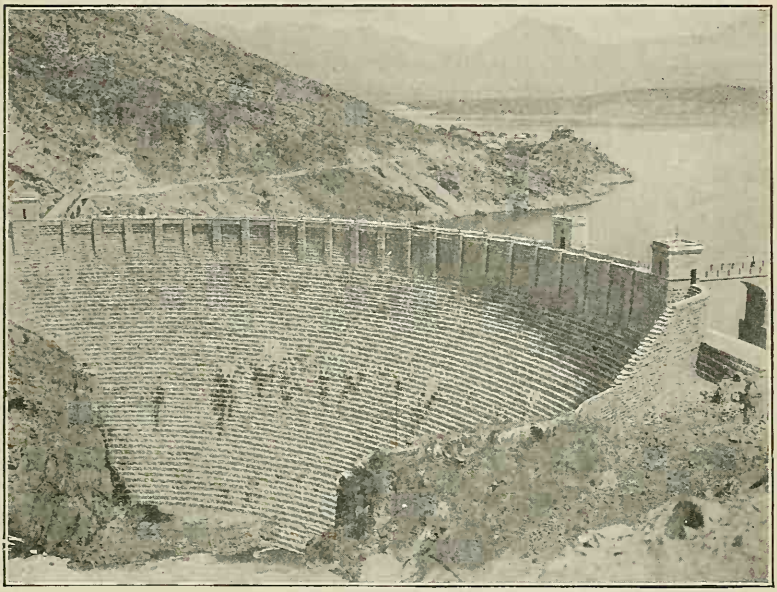
Congress plans a knockout blow.—In the last part of Roosevelt's administration, Congress passed an appropriation bill for money to run the government and tacked to the bill a clause forbidding the President to withdraw any more forest lands in the six northwestern states. This was planned to leave sixteen million acres of timber for the speculators to seize.

Roosevelt was ready to dodge the blow aimed at him. He had the necessary papers prepared in advance, and he withdrew these sixteen million acres before he signed the appropriation bill which forbade more withdrawals. When the land-grabbers found that this vast tract was beyond their reach, he says that they "turned handsprings in their wrath."

Results of the fight for conservation.—Roosevelt called together the governors of all the states to meet at the White House

(1908) to discuss conservation. This historic meeting was the cause of more interest in the subject in every part of the country.

Roosevelt approved plans for seven thousand miles of canals to bring water to dry fields. The Roosevelt Dam, which stores



ROOSEVELT DAM

This dam, 280 feet high and 1,080 feet long, impounds the waters of Salt River, Arizona, which are used to irrigate more than 200,000 acres.

the waters of one river for use in arid fields of Arizona, helps us to remember his interest in irrigation. He withdrew from sale to private interests 80,000,000 acres of coal lands in the United States and Alaska. He tried to save for public use the water power that had not passed under private control.

All of the administrations preceding Roosevelt's withdrew from private entry for the public good 46,000,000 acres of forest lands. Roosevelt alone withdrew 148,000,000 acres. He also withdrew enough coal lands, water-power sites, drainage areas, and phosphate lands, to have his total amount of withdrawals

reach nearly 250,000,000 acres. He thus locked the stable doors before all of the horses were stolen.

Students of conservation say that Roosevelt did his most important work in this field, that it "has been commended by all parties alike," and that it entitles him to rank "as one of the greatest statesmen of the nation."

Summary of Points of Emphasis for Review.—(1) The many-sided Theodore Roosevelt, (2) the new aims, social justice and the "square deal," (3) Roosevelt as a social worker, (4) new note in presidential messages, (5) how he ended the coal strike, (6) the evils of trusts, (7) prosecution of trusts, (8) laws to control corporations, (9) the Interstate Commerce Commission and the Hepburn Act, (10) pure food laws, (11) necessity of conservation of natural resources, (12) Roosevelt's fight for conservation, (13) opposition of Congress, (14) what Roosevelt did for conservation.

Activities.—Theodore Roosevelt received a valuable part of his training on the frontier. The teacher should read to the class parts of Chap. IV., *Cowboy Land*, in Roosevelt's *Autobiography*. The class may describe the activities of the Wild West of Roosevelt's early life (pp. 103, 108, 110, 116, 117, 132–136, of his *Autobiography*).

Give a four-minute talk on "Roosevelt's Fight for Conservation." See his *Autobiography*, pp. 435–448.

What is meant by "the square deal for everybody?" Talk for three minutes on this subject.

If certain people owned the coal mines, did Roosevelt have any right to interfere with their private property?

Which is the better course, to destroy big business or to make it obey certain rules?

What is meant by "publicity" for corporations? Would the giving of rebates by railroads to favored shippers become known, if their accounts could be inspected?

Name a law that protects you, passed during Roosevelt's administration.

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For Pupils.—Hagedorn, *Boy's Life of Theodore Roosevelt;* Wheeler, *Boy with the U. S. Foresters; Theodore Roosevelt's Letters to His Children;* Price, *Land We Live In; Boy's Book of Conservation.*

CHAPTER XXXIII

INTERESTS IN LATIN AMERICA

What is Latin America?—Latin America is the name given to twenty republics in the West Indies and Central and South America. All of them use languages derived from the Latin, and it is for this reason that they are called Latin America. In eighteen of these republics the white people are of Spanish origin and speak Spanish. For nearly three hundred years, these countries belonged to Spain. Nearly all rebelled and secured their independence in the first quarter of the last century. Spain lost her remaining possessions in America at the end of the nineteenth century when the United States took control of Cuba and Porto Rico.

The other two Latin American republics are Brazil, first settled by the Portuguese, and Haiti, formerly a French colony. The Portuguese and French languages, like the Spanish, are derived from Latin.

All of the countries on the mainland of South America are republics except three. These are British, Dutch, and French Guiana, which are colonies under European control.

Service.—What service does Latin America perform for us? It raises four fifths of the world's coffee, more than half of which comes to us. We hold the world's record for an average annual consumption of nine pounds of coffee a year for every person. Latin America furnishes part of the rubber used in our automobile tires, overshoes, and baseballs. It sends us each year millions of feet of hard woods, such as mahogany and rosewood. We take about one fourth of the world's cacao, out of which chocolate and cocoa are made, and we get most of this from Latin America. These are only a few of the ways in which Latin America serves us.

What Latin America needs.—Latin America needs our aid in developing its mines of gold, silver, copper, and fertilizers and its almost untouched forests of hard wood. Its rich lands should be brought under cultivation to furnish fruits and foodstuffs. As it lacks varied kinds of machinery, it cannot supply its people with manufactured clothing and shoes. It requires the assistance of our engineers and the output of our steel mills in order to build more railroads. Parts of Latin America need our help in securing better education.

PAN-AMERICAN BUILDING, WASHINGTON, D. C.

Pan-American Union.—In order that we might become better acquainted with our Latin American neighbors, President Harrison and Secretary of State Blaine invited delegates from their countries to meet for a conference in Washington (1889). This was the beginning of a series of conferences or Pan-American Congresses that have helped to bring about a closer relation between the Latin American republics and the United States. The first Congress created the Pan-American Union, an organization of the twenty-one American republics, which has its headquarters

in the Pan-American Building at Washington. The officials of this union are the Secretary of State of the United States and the diplomatic representatives of the other republics. This union has a permanent staff which encourages trade and tries to promote friendship between the different republics.

The Caribbean zone.—The first twenty years of the twentieth century saw the United States increase its commerce three hundred per cent with that part of Latin America touched by the waters of the Caribbean Sea. We now lead all nations in selling manufactures to twelve of the Latin American republics, but all of these twelve are in the Caribbean zone—that is, on or near the Caribbean Sea. The reason for this is partly geographical. Of the great manufacturing nations we are the one nearest to this zone. Lack of shipping and failure to try to serve the needs of the more distant countries of South America have hindered our trade with them.

The entire Caribbean zone wants our textile goods and steel tools, flour and other foods, and we are glad to get its natural products, such as sugar, cacao, bananas, coffee, and mahogany. The region washed by the Caribbean Sea produces most of the world's crop of bananas. It sends us nearly all of them, sometimes as many as seven billion bananas in one year. It is fortunate for our trade with the Caribbean zone that we are a banana-eating nation and consume an average of about sixty-five bananas a year for each man, woman, and child. Another Caribbean product that we use in large quantities is coffee.

Cuba is the world's greatest producer of sugar cane. In the value of its foreign trade it often ranks third among the Latin American republics, being surpassed only by Argentina and Brazil. Cuba has stood as high as sixth among all our foreign customers in the amount of goods that it has bought from us. In some years there are only four other nations in the world from which we buy goods of greater value.

Our trade with the Caribbean zone shows in a striking way the varied kinds of service that different peoples perform for

each other. It gives us a feeling of kinship to realize how necessary all are in this exchange of service.

A new interest in the Caribbean zone.—When the United States decided to build the Panama Canal, it became more interested in the orderly government and prosperity of the Caribbean countries. Our expanding commerce and the long voyage of the *Oregon* around Cape Horn to take part in the Spanish-American War had shown people that a canal was needed at once. There had been centuries of talk about digging an isthmian canal. Roosevelt showed the spirit of the frontier when he said that he would start the work and let people talk about it afterward.

Legislation for building the canal.—Ferdinand de Lesseps′, a Frenchman, who was the successful engineer of the Suez Canal, had tried to dig the Panama Canal and failed. His company, after spending a quarter of a billion dollars, went into bankruptcy (1888), having completed only a small part of the canal. The expense was so great that the resources of the United States were needed for the enterprise. Congress now authorized (1902) the President to construct the Panama Canal on condition that the French company would take $40,000,000 for its rights and that Colombia would give, on reasonable terms, perpetual control of the strip of land needed for the canal.

Some very influential men in Congress were interested in constructing a canal through Nicaragua. This influence was strong enough to attach to this act of Congress a proviso ordering the President to begin work on the Nicaragua route if the conditions were not met by the French company and Colombia. The French accepted the offer, but Colombia rejected a treaty for selling control of the required land for $10,000,000 and $250,000 a year. Roosevelt feared that his administration would go down in history as a failure if he should construct the canal on the poorer route.

Panama revolts.—The people of Panama, which was then one of the states of Colombia, knew that they would be left out of

the great highway of commerce if the canal was constructed through Nicaragua, and that their lands and crops would be worth much less. The leaders of Panama declared the time had come for their people to exercise the right of self-determination in regard to their own government. Twice before (in 1841 and in 1857), they had separated from Colombia, but each time had rejoined it.

Panama now revolted and proclaimed itself an independent republic (November, 1903). The United States and most of the European powers recognized its independence. The new republic of Panama promptly agreed to give the United States the right to build the canal and to own a strip of land ten miles wide along its sides in return for $10,000,000, a yearly rental of $250,000, and an understanding that the United States would guarantee the independence of Panama. The United States accepted the offer. Colombia for many years claimed that it had been prevented by the United States from regaining control of Panama. In the end, the claim for damages was settled by a treaty (1921), under which she was paid $25,000,000.

How it became possible to dig the canal.—The most important work was not to begin at once to "make the dirt fly," as many thought, but to make it possible for those who worked on the canal to live there. It would have been impossible to build the canal if heroic Americans had not given up their lives to show others how to avoid yellow fever and malaria. History often tells the story of the heroes of the battlefield. We have just begun to learn that any one who works hard for the welfare of others, that any one who uses his life's energies in fighting ignorance, disease, and evil, is no less a hero and a patriot. At the beginning of the twentieth century a small group of army doctors, soldiers, and hospital nurses, who were in Cuba while it was under American control, volunteered to sleep for twenty nights in rooms packed with the clothing of yellow-fever patients. It had been thought that such a risk meant catching the disease and probable death. Not one of this group caught yellow fever. Their

experiment proved that the disease is not contagious. They then allowed themselves to be bitten by the *Stegomyia* (stĕg-ō-mī′yȧ) mosquito in order to have scientific proof that it is the means by which the disease is spread. Dr. Jesse W. Lazear, U. S. A., was one of those who watched this mosquito, after having bitten a yellow-fever patient, settle on the back of his hand and inject the poison. Five days later he had yellow fever from which he died. President Eliot of Harvard wrote this inscription for the tablet in Johns Hopkins Hospital, Baltimore, in memory of this hero:

"With more than the courage and the devotion of the soldier, he risked and lost his life to show how a fearful pestilence is communicated and how its ravages may be prevented."

Only a few years before this it was proved that malaria is not due to miasma or damp or polluted air but is communicated by the bite of the *Anopheles* (ȧ-nŏf′ĕ-lēz) mosquito. The constant rains and warmth make Panama a paradise for mosquitoes. The Sanitary Department of the Isthmus, headed by Colonel Gorgas, drained the swamps and marshes, oiled the stagnant pools where the mosquitoes bred, and screened the houses. Since 1905 there has been no yellow fever there that originated on the isthmus, and only a comparatively small amount of malaria.

The French are an unusually scientific nation, but before 1900 it was not known that the mosquito spreads disease. They put bowls of water under the legs of beds in Panama hospitals to prevent ants from annoying the patients. These bowls became breeding places for the yellow-fever mosquito, and the hospitals thus became an effective agency for spreading the disease. We need not wonder that the French failed to build the canal. The Americans succeeded because the new discoveries showed them how to prevent yellow fever and malaria. "Without this knowledge," says Colonel Gorgas, "I do not believe we could have done any better than did the French."

The completed canal and its use.—Work was begun on the canal in 1904, and it was ready for the passage of vessels in 1914.

The canal and its fortifications cost about $400,000,000. The distance between the shore lines of the Pacific and the Caribbean Sea along the route of the canal is forty-one miles. One who watched the construction of the canal says that it is for the most part not a canal through the isthmus but a bridge of water over it, the greatest water bridge in the world. "The piers or walls which hold the bridge in place are the Gatun (gä-to͞on′) Dam and elevator gates at the Atlantic end and the dam and elevator gates at Pedro Miguel (pā′drō mē-gāl′) on the Pacific end."

THE PANAMA CANAL

The Panama Canal is one of the wonders of the world and an object of pride to the American nation. The hero of its construction is Colonel George Washington Goethals (gō′thalz), a graduate of West Point. He was the chief engineer and supervised this most difficult undertaking from 1907 until it was completed.

By treaty, Great Britain and the United States had long before agreed that both countries should be associated in the control of the canal. But by a new treaty (in 1901) Great Britain withdrew and left the cost and sole management to the United States, with the proviso that we shall treat the shipping of all nations alike.

From the point of view of our country, the canal has two chief uses.

I. It provides rapid passage between the Atlantic and Pacific for our navy.

II. The canal is of great advantage in commerce because it shortens the trade routes and the cost of freight. New York steamers to San Francisco have their trip shortened nearly 8000 miles because they do not now have to go around South America. Steamers from San Francisco to New Orleans have 9000 miles less distance to travel. Important ports of the west coast of South America are brought 4000 or 6000 miles nearer New York. Japanese and Australian steamers coming by the Panama Canal to the eastern United States have their voyage shortened nearly 4000 miles. The Panama Canal has changed some of the great trade routes of the world.

Extension of the Monroe Doctrine.—Roosevelt feared that the importance of the new Panama trade route might tempt some nation to try to get a foothold in the Caribbean zone. When Germany threatened to seize a customhouse in Venezuela to collect a debt, he said that if Germany did not agree to arbitrate the matter he would send the American fleet to Venezuela with orders to prevent the seizure. The German ambassador said that such an act would mean war. Roosevelt sent the American fleet under Admiral Dewey to Porto Rico to be ready for war if necessary. Germany then accepted arbitration.

Roosevelt sent a part of our navy to take possession of the customhouses of the negro republic of Santo Domingo with orders to collect the revenues and pay her debts to foreign nations before they tried to seize a customhouse and thus secure a foothold. United States senators were alarmed at what they called his lawlessness. His use of the navy to compel irresponsible governments to meet their obligations was called the "Big Stick" policy.

The old application of the Monroe Doctrine caused the United States to wait until Caribbean countries were actually in trouble before stepping in to protect them. Roosevelt's new application led us to step in ahead and prevent the trouble. Later Presidents adopted Roosevelt's policies in the Caribbean. Not only Panama and Santo Domingo, but also Haiti and

A Lock on the Panama Canal

The ship is being lowered from one level to another. Four electric locomotives are used to move the ship into and through the lock, and to hold it in place so that it shall not collide with the walls or gates.

Nicaragua became virtually protectorates under the control of the United States.

Purchase of the Virgin Islands.—The Panama Canal, the growing trade of the United States in the Caribbean zone, the great World War, and the possibility of other wars caused the United States to buy (1916) from Denmark the Danish West Indies, known as the Virgin Islands. The sum of $25,000,000 was paid for these islands with an area of 138 square miles. This small area cost more than the great Louisiana Purchase.

The United States bought these islands because one of them, St. Thomas, called the "Gibraltar of the West Indies," has a fine harbor for our navy. The position of St. Thomas makes it the key to one of the chief trade routes to the West Indies and the Panama Canal. Except as a naval station, these islands are of little use to the United States. The $25,000,000 paid for them is only a fraction of what the continuous expenses for the maintenance of the naval station will amount to in the coming years. War and defense against war are the most expensive activities known to history.

Summary of Points of Emphasis for Review.—(1) Latin America, (2) how Latin America and the United States serve each other, (3) our trade with the Caribbean zone, (4) the work of the Pan-American Union, (5) why the Panama Canal was needed, (6) the law authorizing its building, (7) how the revolt of Panama made the canal possible, (8) how the knowledge of the cause of yellow fever and of malaria helped in building the canal, (9) importance of the Panama Canal to the United States and to the world, (10) Roosevelt's extension of the Monroe Doctrine, the "Big Stick" policy, (11) why we bought the Virgin Islands.

Activities.—Draw a blackboard map showing the twenty Latin American republics, and mark in red those of the Caribbean zone. On the map paste samples of the chief products of each country or pictures of them.

Make two lists: (1) the products that we send to Latin America, (2) the Latin American products in use in your home.

Write one hundred words on this subject: "Why Trade between the Latin American Republics and the United States should be Increased."

In a two-minute speech make clear to the class why the Panama Canal was needed.

Imagine yourself to be one of the members of the Sanitary Department in the early days of the American occupation of the Canal Zone. In a letter

home describe conditions as they were when you arrived and the improvements made.

Draw a map of the Canal Zone, showing the canal, Panama, Colon, Pedro Miguel. If you prefer, make a model of the canal on the sand table. For a detailed description of the canal, read Hall and Chester's *Panama and the Canal* or Bishop's *Panama Gateway*.

On a map of the world, show how the Panama Canal has affected commerce. Use black lines to show the old routes used before the canal was built, and red lines for the new Panama Canal routes.

Write in fifty words your opinion of Roosevelt's "Big Stick" policy.

References for Teachers.—Fish, *The Path of Empire* (Chron. of Am.); XV.–XVII.; Shepherd, *The Hispanic Nations of the New World* (Chron. of Am.); Shepherd, *Latin America;* Latané, *America as a World Power*, XII., XV.; Latané, *From Isolation to Leadership;* Jones, *Caribbean Interests of the U. S.;* Verrill, *South and Central Am. Trade Conditions of Today;* Ross, *South of Panama;* Bishop, *Panama Gateway;* Roosevelt, *An Autobiography*, XIV.

For Pupils.—Hall and Chester, *Panama and the Canal;* Barstow, *Progress of a United People*, 107–124.

Loading Bananas for Shipment to the United States

CHAPTER XXXIV

PROBLEMS, OLD AND NEW (1909–1917)

Taft succeeds Roosevelt.—William H. Taft, the twenty-seventh President of the United States, was born in Cincinnati. He graduated second in a class of 121 at Yale, but in popularity he was first by the vote of his class. In his freshman year he gained the applause of his class by throwing the sophomore champion wrestler. He was a member of a university crew that rowed Harvard.

After graduating from college, he studied law and became a judge of the circuit court of the United States. He was the first civil governor of the Philippine Islands. He then served as Secretary of War under Roosevelt and was sent to Cuba to adjust an insurrection there. His success was marked in all these fields.

WILLIAM HOWARD TAFT

Photograph made in 1922 when he was chief justice of the Supreme Court.

He was nominated for the presidency by the Republicans (1908) and defeated his Democratic opponent, William J. Bryan. Taft served four years as President (1909–1913). After having been a private citizen for eight years, he was appointed Chief Justice of the Supreme Court of the United States (1921), being the first ex-president to receive that honor.

An old problem.—Under Roosevelt the problems had seemed mostly new. The people had formed the habit of expecting Napoleonic surprises from him.

Taft found himself face to face with an old problem, that of the tariff. A change in the tariff usually meant trouble for the party in power, because every change made the shoe pinch somewhere. A majority of the people now believed that the tariff gave unfair privileges to manufacturers and raised the cost of living. Taft called a special session of Congress to revise the tariff. In the Senate the influence of the "standpatters," who objected to change, was so great that a revision satisfactory to the majority was not made. Upon the passage of the Payne-Aldrich tariff bill, so called from the names of its proposers in the House and the Senate, the Republican party was divided into two hostile camps, "standpatters" and "progressives."

The tariff question prompted Taft to favor taking two steps. (1) He appointed a Tariff Commission to study the subject carefully from a scientific basis of deciding how much protection was needed to enable our industries to meet foreign competition. The Republicans were defeated at the next congressional election, and the Democrats passed a number of separate tariff bills, lowering the duties on special things. Taft vetoed all these bills because he wanted to wait for the report of the Tariff Commission. (2) In order to reduce the cost of living, Taft induced Congress to agree to reciprocity with Canada. This meant that Canada and the United States should exchange many products free of duty. Free Canadian wheat, eggs, butter, and cattle would, he thought, lower the cost of living. The farmers now became angry because they did not want the tariff lowered on what they produced. The Canadians settled the question by voting against reciprocity, and so the plan came to nothing.

Wider and safer use of the post office.—In Taft's administration the post office became more efficient in three ways:

1. Postal savings banks were opened in the post offices of cities and large towns. The people felt that these banks were

absolutely safe, and at once began to deposit millions of dollars of their savings in them.

II. A parcels post system was put in operation, in spite of the strong opposition of the express companies. This law provided that packages could be sent through the mails at rates which were less than the express companies charged.

III. For a long time large sums of money had been made by those who sent through the mails misleading circulars, letters, and advertisements. Sometimes the mails would be flooded with circulars telling how a fortune could be made from investing in a certain mining or oil stock, which was really worthless. One advertiser made nearly a hundred thousand dollars from a worthless antifat medicine. The use of the mails by such swindlers made the United States a partner in their crime. The Post Office Department began (1910) a vigorous prosecution of these swindlers. Hundreds were sent to jail, among them a well-known writer who mailed misleading circulars of mining stocks. This crusade saved the public millions of dollars each year.

Admission of the last states.—In Taft's administration New Mexico (1912) and Arizona (1912) became states. This completed the list of forty-eight states formed from the unbroken stretch of land from the Atlantic to the Pacific and from Canada to Mexico. Utah (1896) and Oklahoma (1907) had already been admitted, so that there were now no more territories in the continental part of the United States.

The election of 1912.—Taft was renominated by the Republican convention, which was controlled by the conservatives, or "standpatters." The progressives then formed a new party and nominated Theodore Roosevelt. Woodrow Wilson, the governor of New Jersey, was the Democratic candidate for the presidency.

The campaign of 1912 ranks among the most exciting in our history. The new Progressive party called for a downward revision of the tariff, equal suffrage for men and women, the prohibition of child labor, and for social and industrial justice in general. It polled more than four million votes, a record-

breaking number for a new party. The Republican party dropped into third place, carrying the electoral vote of only two states. The Democrats elected their ticket.

Woodrow Wilson.—The twenty-eighth President of the United States was Woodrow Wilson (1856–1924), who served for two terms (1913–1921). He was born in Virginia, the state that had become famous as the mother of Presidents (p. 272). His father was a clergyman, who gave him a taste for literature by often reading aloud at home. The son went to Princeton, where he graduated with the high average of ninety per cent for his four years in college. Wilson was the sixth President since the Civil War to graduate from college with high standing.

WOODROW WILSON
Photograph made in 1917.

He was manager of the university football team and senior managing editor of the *Princetonian*. In his college essays and other writings he learned how to say things in a clear and forceful way; and later he wrote several books that were widely read.

He practiced law for a very short time and then went to Johns Hopkins University, where he took the degree of Ph.D. For about twenty years he was a college professor, teaching history, political economy, and law. After having been president of Princeton University for eight years, he was elected governor of New Jersey. In that office he was noted for securing progressive legislation. He had a law passed to compensate workmen for injuries, and he brought the New Jersey corporations under rigid state control. He was then elected President of the United States, and at the end of his first term he was reëlected over his Republican opponent, Charles E. Hughes, after a very close contest.

Tariff reform.—The Democratic platform demanded a tariff for revenue only. Wilson called Congress in special session, just

as Taft had done, to revise the tariff. Congress would not wait for a commission to work out a scientific basis for a tariff, but at once reduced the rates on almost a thousand imported articles. This revision was known as the Underwood Tariff, after the name of the member of the House of Representatives who had spent much time in preparing it. The World War came before the people had time to make up their minds about the new tariff. After that War the Republicans passed the Fordney-McCumber Tariff Bill (1922), which increased duties.

New methods of dealing with corporations.—The Federal Trade Commission Act (1914) provided a permanent body of five commissioners to investigate large corporations doing an interstate business, to find if they try to prevent competition or resort to unfair methods. This Federal Trade Commission stands in the same relation to industrial corporations engaged in interstate trade as the Interstate Commerce Commission does to the railroads. The Federal Trade Commission has the power to examine all books and accounts of large corporations so that the public may know how the business is conducted. Heavy fines and imprisonment are the penalty for unfair competition in restraint of trade.

A few weeks later, Congress passed an antitrust act often called the Clayton Bill, from the name of its proposer. This was planned to strengthen the Sherman Act and to make it more easily understood. The new act forbade discriminations in price and did not allow large companies to have the same directors as competing companies or to own stock in them. The Pennsylvania Railroad was forced, for instance, to sell its stock in the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad, which was a competitor. Neither road could have any director who served on the board of the other road.

Labor and the antitrust law.—At the beginning of the twentieth century, a union of hat workers tried to compel a firm in Danbury, Connecticut, to employ only union labor. They combined to boycott the hats made by this firm and

decreased its business. The firm sued the union as a combination forbidden by the Sherman Act. The case was fought in the courts for twelve years. Finally, the Supreme Court of the United States decided that the Sherman Act applied to combinations of labor as well as of capital and that the boycott had restrained interstate trade. A verdict of $252,000 against the union was given to the manufacturing firm.

The Clayton Bill excluded combinations of laborers from prosecution under the Sherman Act and declared that "the labor of a human being is not a commodity or article of commerce." President Gompers of the American Federation of Labor called this exemption of labor from prosecution "the industrial *Magna Charta* upon which the working people will rear their structure of industrial freedom." Others thought that the same rule should apply to both labor and capital.

The Federal Reserve Act.—Wilson and Congress tried to solve the old problem of escaping the influence of a centralized money power and of issuing paper money to meet the needs of the country in emergencies. Congress passed the Federal Reserve Act (1913) as the answer to this difficult problem. This act established twelve banks in different parts of the country in order to prevent any one bank or section from exerting too much influence. These twelve Federal Reserve banks are banks for bankers and not for individual depositors. In one respect they are like wholesale stores which sell only to other stores and not to individuals. Each of these twelve banks gives credit to other banks in its district and issues paper money to meet the needs of business. They can expand or contract the currency when necessary. Every national bank must be a member of the Federal Reserve bank in its district.

Before this, paper money was based on one hundred per cent of coin or of government bonds. In panics or hard times many refused to give credit, and those who had money often locked it up in safety vaults. The Federal Reserve Act made it possible to issue more money if it is needed for business or to take the

place of money that has been withdrawn from circulation. Federal Reserve banks may issue paper currency based on only forty per cent of gold and sixty per cent of "commercial paper." Business men and corporations often give their notes or acceptances instead of money to those from whom they buy goods. These promises to pay are called commercial paper. The Federal Reserve currency which is in common use to-day is in large part based on these notes and acceptances.

Farm Loans.—The Federal Farm Loan Act was passed (1916) to enable farmers to get loans more easily and cheaply. This act provided for twelve Federal Land banks in different parts of the United States. These banks were given power to loan on farms in their districts sums of from $100 to $10,000 at not over six per cent interest. Capital for these banks was raised by selling bonds free from all kinds of taxes.

Summary of Points of Emphasis for Review.—(1) Taft elected President, his training for the office, (2) why the people wanted the tariff lowered, (3) two steps prompted by the tariff unrest, (4) prosecution of trusts, (5) how the post office became more efficient, (6) the admission of New Mexico and Arizona into the Union, (7) the unusual election of 1912, (8) Wilson's early training, his essay on Congress, (9) offices held by him before becoming President, (10) tariff reform, (11) why the Federal Trade Commission Act and the Clayton Bill were passed, (12) labor not a commodity, (13) Federal Reserve Act and its purpose, (14) the Federal Farm Loan Act.

Activities.—(1) Would reciprocity with Canada have lessened the cost of living? Why did the farmers object?

Write a paragraph on the advantages of the parcels post.

How had the conduct of the United States post office made it a partner in the crime of swindling?

In fifty words define "progressive" and "standpatter."

Is there any way in which a lender of money may be paid back the same purchasing power as he lent? Laughlin, in his *Elements of Political Economy* (Chapter X.), proposes a simple method.

References.—Ogg, *National Progress*, 1907–1917, I.–XIII.; Paxson, *Recent Hist. of U. S.*, XXXVI.–XLI.; *New Nation*, XX.; Beard, *Contemporary Am. Hist.*, XII., XIII.; Bogart and Thompson, *Readings in Economic Hist. of the U. S.*, 709–711, 765–768, 682–686; James, *Readings in Am. Hist.*, 570–581; Fish, *Development of Am. Nationality*, 525–542.

know causes of world war

CHAPTER XXXV

THE WORLD WAR

Europe in 1914.—We should be thankful that our country extends from the Atlantic to the Pacific. If the area of the United States contained a dozen countries jealous of each other's power, we might, like Europe, have been in constant danger of war.

The "balance of power" was a phrase often used in Europe. This meant that the different countries of Europe tried to combine so as to prevent one nation or group of nations from becoming powerful enough to control the rest. In 1914 Germany was reaching out after the commerce of the world. She was building a railroad from Constantinople to the city of Bagdad on the Tigris River to develop trade with Asia and also to control the Turkish Empire. Her railway from Berlin to Constantinople passed through Serbia, and Germany wished her ally Austria-Hungary to keep Serbia under control.

In the last half of the nineteenth century some European nations, fearing Russia's power, had combined to cripple her commerce by preventing her from having free access to the Mediterranean or from getting a port on an open sea which does not freeze. Russia was determined that her commerce should have a place in the sun, and she waited her chance to secure possession of the outlet from the Black Sea to the Mediterranean for her ships. She feared that the Dardanelles might be closed if Austria-Hungary and Germany controlled Serbia.

Almost all the European nations had special grievances and were jealous of each other. For many years they had been increasing their armies, in fear of war. It required only a spark to cause an explosion.

The World War begins.—The heir to the Austrian throne was killed (June, 1914) by a man of the Serbian race, citizen of a

province that had been annexed by Austria. Several weeks later Austria sent a note to Serbia with ten demands and gave her forty-eight hours to answer. Serbia agreed to nearly all the demands and offered to submit the others to the Great Powers for arbitration. Austria would not agree to this condition. Russia gave notice that she would assemble her army the day that Austrian forces invaded Serbia. Great Britain asked for a conference to prevent the war, but Germany insisted that Austria and Serbia should settle their affairs by themselves and thus showed that she approved of Austria's demands. Germany might have prevented the war, but instead her attitude encouraged Austria to begin it. Some German leaders taught that war is necessary for progress because they said it enabled the strongest and fittest nations to take the place of the weak and unfit. A German magazine for boys called war "the holiest and noblest human activity." Germany had the greatest army in all history, and she thought that war would put her in the foremost place in the world.

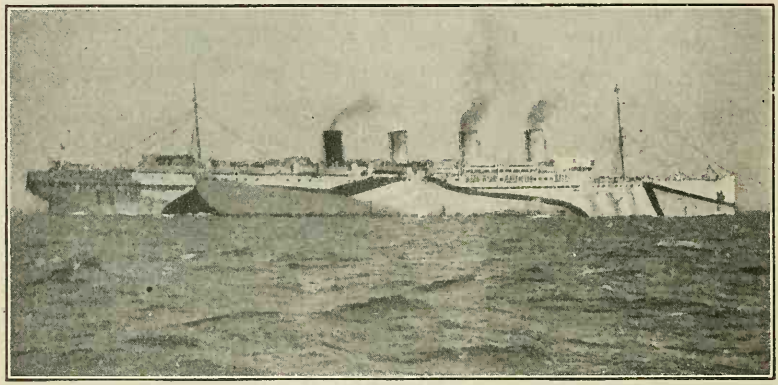
Austria-Hungary declared war on Serbia, July 28, 1914. The next day Russia began to gather her army. Germany demanded that Russia should stop military preparations and begin to demobilize her army within twelve hours. Russia paid no attention to this demand, and Germany declared war against Russia. August 1, 1914. Germany also declared war against Russia's ally, France, and began to rush her troops through Belgium in order to reach Paris before France could arm. Germany was bound by a treaty to respect the neutrality of Belgium, but her prime minister called this treaty a scrap of paper. The German invasion of Belgium led Great Britain and her colonies to enter the war against Germany.

Turkey and Bulgaria later joined Germany and Austria-Hungary. These four were called the Central Powers. Italy had been an ally of Germany and Austria, but she did not now join them, on the ground that they had provoked the war and that her treaty with them bound her to aid them only in case of

a defensive war. Great Britain, Russia, France, Serbia, and Belgium were at the beginning of the war known as the "Allies."

Most of the world in time became involved in the war. Before it closed, Italy, Japan, Roumania, the United States, China, and thirteen other nations had taken the side of the Allies.

Why the United States entered the war.—Contrary to international law, a German submarine sank without warning the giant British passenger ship *Lusitania*, May 7, 1915, and caused



A Camouflaged American Transport

During the war the Allies devised many kinds of defense against submarines. Camouflage or deceptive painting was used for the purpose of making it hard for submarines to observe the ship's course accurately.

the death of 1,153 persons, 114 of whom were Americans. President Wilson demanded reparation and the discontinuance of such an illegal use of the submarine. He threatened "to omit no word or act" to protect Americans in the future.

After long delay Germany promised to restrict the use of its submarines but demanded in return that Great Britain, which controlled the surface of the sea, should permit food to be sent by ships to the civil population of Germany. Great Britain refused permission because such food might reach the army and prolong the war. Germany finally determined to try to win the war by the unrestricted use of submarines. It notified the United States (January 31, 1917) that its submarines would sink without warning any vessel found in a zone hundreds of miles wide

surrounding the shores of its enemies. This was a denial of the right of American vessels to a free use of the high seas. President Wilson sent the German minister home at once, but took no further action until German submarines had sunk several American ships and had caused the death of American citizens by sinking other ships on the high seas.

Declaration of war.—Germany thought at the beginning of the war that trouble with Mexico would keep the United States busy. In the first year of the World War (1914), we had seized Vera Cruz for a time because of an insult to our navy. Later, we sent an army into northern Mexico because Mexican revolutionists had crossed our border and killed American citizens, but we fortunately removed our army (January, 1917), none too soon for the new crisis.

When the German submarines continued to destroy American ships and lives, President Wilson called Congress together and said: "I advise that the Congress declare the recent course of the Imperial German Government to be in fact nothing less than war against the government and people of the United States." He told Congress that the aim of the United States was to make the world safe for democracy and to secure a universal dominion of right by consent of free people. He emphasized the fact that we entered the contest "seeking nothing for ourselves but what we shall wish to share with all free peoples."

Congress declared war against the Imperial German Government April 6, 1917, and also against Austria later in the same year (December 7).

Preparations for war.—The United States had only about 200,000 soldiers when the war began, but it had nearly 4,000,000 when it ended. Many were volunteers, but most of the soldiers were secured for the army by an act of Congress which drafted able-bodied young men from twenty-one to thirty-one. The next year the age limits were extended from eighteen to forty-five. The end of the war made it unnecessary to call the older men to arms. This way of selecting an army took both rich and

poor, those who wished to avoid service as well as the patriotic. The drafted men were trained, usually for six months, in great camps in various parts of the United States, and for about two more months after reaching Europe.

A year after our declaration of war, we had not made enough rifles, machine guns, and heavy artillery for our army. We had four serviceable modern airplanes when we declared war. Another four of American manufacture reached the battle front fifteen months later. We may well shudder to think what might have happened if we had been forced into war without the aid of the Allies. However, in our last battle (beginning September 26, 1918) our army was able to rely mostly on its own resources.

SALVATION ARMY HUT IN FRANCE

From U. S. official photograph. The Salvation Army workers were famous for the doughnuts they made for the soldiers.

Welfare of the soldiers.—The well-being of our soldiers was more carefully provided for than in any previous war. Their health, morals, and education received special care. The Red Cross, Young Men's Christian Association, Knights of Columbus, Jewish Welfare Board, Salvation Army, War Camp Community Service, and American Library Association looked after the welfare of the soldiers at home and abroad.

When an officer in a home camp reported to a Red Cross worker that a soldier was worrying about something so much that he was not learning the tactics, she found that he was almost insane because he had to leave his sick mother with no one to care for her. The worker pointed to the red cross which she wore and said: "The Red Cross will see that your mother has constant attention until you can return to her." The look of

anxiety left that soldier's face, and he replied: "Now I can learn the game of war." This shows how the new welfare work could improve the morale of soldiers. The army doctors and nurses attended to the wounded so skillfully that nearly eighty-five per cent recovered and returned to duty. The work of these nurses and of the women generally through the World War was beyond all praise.

New government activities.—The needs of our fighting forces and of the Allies were so varied and extensive that the government had to control much of the industry of the country. The government operated the railroads for two years and took possession of the wool to make warm clothing for the soldiers. Herbert Hoover of California was appointed national food ad-

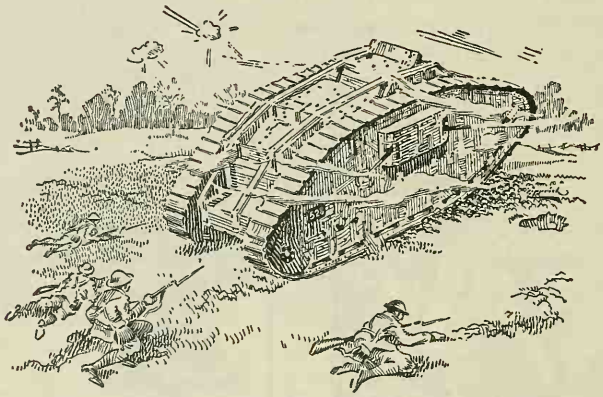
FOOD ADMINISTRATION POSTER

LIBERTY BOND POSTER

ministrator because it was necessary to regulate the use of food in order to have enough for the Allies as well as ourselves. He had "wheatless" days, "meatless" days, and partly "sweetless" months when the use of sugar was restricted. Factories

and places of amusement were closed at times to save coal. People willingly economized in the use of wheat, meat, sugar, and coal, feeling that they were thus helping to win the war.

Many men expert in their own line of business gave their services free to the government and helped direct the nation's industries. Men, women, and children gave their time to sell Liberty Bonds and War Savings Stamps to provide the government with money for the war.



A Tank or Portable Fort, First Used in the World War

The tank was propelled and steered by means of two belts or caterpillar treads, one on each side.

The new game of war.—Every former war had become ancient history. The war between Spain and the United States and that between Russia and Japan had been fought on the sea and on the land. Two new places for combat were now added—the air and under the sea. In the first battle in which Americans fought as a separate army—St. Mihiel (săn′me-yĕl′), September 12, 13, 1918—they were assisted by the greatest navy of airships that ever took part in a battle. The dream of the English poet, Alfred Tennyson, had come true. In *Locksley Hall* (1842) he had written how

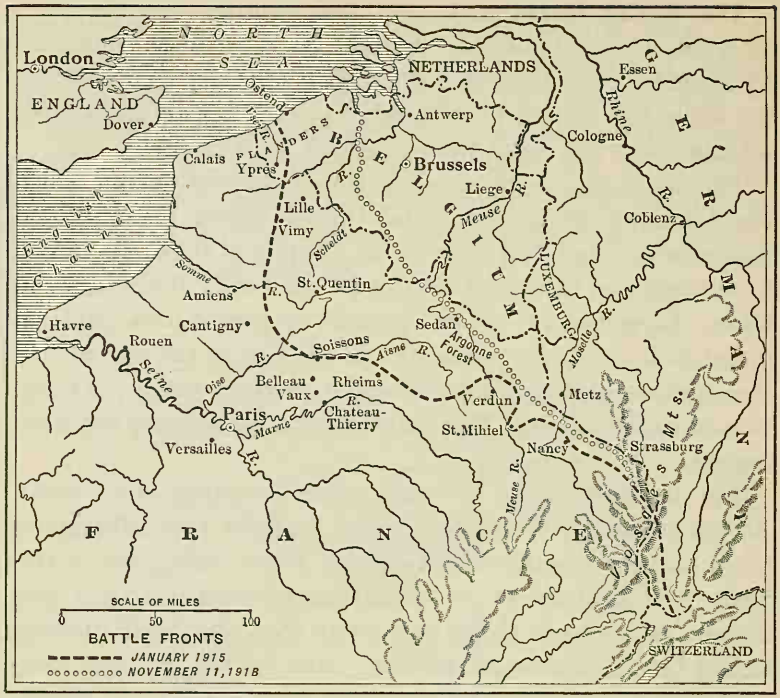
> ". . . . there rained a ghastly dew
> From the nations' airy navies grappling in the central blue."

The British invention of the tank worried the Germans. This was a sort of portable fort that could advance, unharmed by machine guns, through barbed wire and over trenches. All the while the tank gunner could fire death-dealing shots from machine guns and small cannon behind walls of steel.

The use of poison gas was a new and effective agency which the Germans introduced. The United States manufactured 5,400,000 gas masks for protection. In spite of these, gas caused from twenty to thirty per cent of all our battle disabilities and losses. Large areas could be "gassed" by bombs from airplanes or by shells fired from cannon. At the end of the war we had the questionable honor of being able to produce deadly gas faster than any other nation. War had become a game fit for the lower regions.

The increased range of submarines surprised the world. At the beginning of the war it was thought that submarines could scarcely venture from Germany to the west coast of Ireland. The *Deutschland* (doich'länt), a German merchant submarine, came to our shores twice with dyes and other valuable freight before we entered the war. After we declared war, German submarines destroyed merchant vessels near our shores. One shell from a submarine actually landed on our soil.

The navy and transportation of soldiers.—Our navy did its greatest work in protecting the transports which carried our troops abroad. In this task, it was assisted by the British navy. What has been called the "miracle of transportation" occurred in this war. In four months, May, June, July, and August, 1918, we sent over the ocean 1,125,000 of our soldiers. The total number taken to Europe was more than 2,000,000. Forty-eight of every hundred went in British ships; forty-four, in American vessels; and the balance, in ships of other nations. Only 732 of our men were lost at sea on the eastern voyage. The navy did other necessary work not of the showy kind. It destroyed submarines, laid mines, and helped to keep supplies from reaching Germany.



THE WESTERN FRONT

Progress of the war before the entrance of the United States. —The World War had lasted for nearly three years before the United States entered it. The German advance was delayed ten days by the heroic resistance of the Belgians. Those days enabled France to assemble her army and gave Great Britain time to send 100,000 soldiers across the English Channel. The French and British forces then fought the battle of the Marne (1914), one of the decisive battles of the world. It stopped the advance of the Germans and saved Paris. Germany thought that the war would be over in a few weeks. An English historian says: "But for the victory of the Marne, it certainly would have been finished by Christmas, 1914, and finished by the complete triumph of Germany over her Continental enemies, leaving

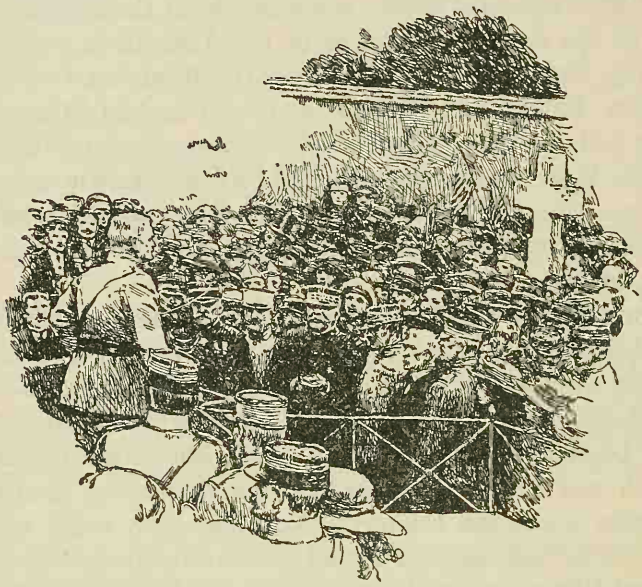
us, as in Napoleon's time, to continue our resistance alone, so long as we could keep off invasion by retaining our command of the sea."

After the battle of the Marne, the Germans retired to the Aisne (ân) River, where they intrenched, extending the trenches from the North Sea to Switzerland. The line on the western front then remained nearly stationary until the United States entered the war. During most of this time there was heavy fighting, not only on the western battle front but also on the Russian, Italian, and Turkish fronts and in Asia Minor. The Allies had also seized German colonial possessions in Africa and the Far East. But neither side had been able to win a decisive victory. The result was in doubt when an internal revolution stopped Russia's brave resistance (1917), and she soon withdrew from the war.

Americans on the fighting line.—The collapse of Russia allowed Germany to collect on the west front "the most formidable fighting force the world had ever seen." The Germans determined to conquer before the American army was ready to fight. They began their drives (March, 1918) against the British and French and forced them back so far that many feared the Germans would win before the American army could take its place on the fighting line. About 300,000 American soldiers had reached France, and some of them were put in quiet places in the trenches to release veteran soldiers for the fighting front.

The unit of our army was the division, numbering about 28,000. It was a little more than a year after our declaration of war before an American division began offensive warfare. On May 28, 1918, the First United States Division, which had been rigorously trained in France since the preceding autumn, took the town of Cantigny (kăn-tēn-yē′) from the Germans and held it in spite of machine-gun fire and bombardment by artillery and gas shells. Our loss in killed and wounded was 1067. This small victory was important because it showed the Allies that the Americans were learning the new game of war.

The French and American commanders in chief.—Great Britain, France, and the United States chose the great French strategist, Ferdinand Foch (fôsh), to be commander in chief. President Wilson had selected General John J. Pershing (1860–) to be commander of the American Expeditionary Forces, as our army was called. He had graduated at West



GENERAL PERSHING AT THE TOMB OF LAFAYETTE

Drawn from a photograph. Not long after Pershing's arrival in France, he paid his respects at the tomb of Lafayette (p. 196); the part of his address often quoted is "Lafayette, we are here."

Point, fought in the Spanish-American War, watched fighting between Japan and Russia (1905), and commanded the United States troops sent into Mexico (1916). General Pershing showed that he was equal to the command of the largest army that ever fell to the lot of an American general.

Château-Thierry; second battle of the Marne.—While the Americans were fighting at Cantigny, the Germans began their last great drive toward Paris. Château-Thierry (shȧ-tō′-tyȧr-rē′) was a town on the Marne River in the line of the German march.

American soldiers and marines, "the soldiers of the sea," were hurried there to help in stopping the drive. They covered themselves with glory by the way in which they took Belleau (bĕl-lō′) Wood, a forest near Château-Thierry.

A number of American divisions fought bravely along the Château-Thierry front to keep the Germans from crossing the Marne River a second time. This struggle is called the second battle of the Marne. The Germans crossed, but were quickly driven back. On July 18, 1918, General Foch took the offensive. From that time until the end of the war, the Germans were kept on the defensive.

The coming of the Americans turned the tide. There were in July, 1918, more than 1,200,000 American soldiers in France. More were coming fast.

The American army organized; battle of St. Mihiel.—Until after the second battle of the Marne, the Americans had been fighting as a part of the French or British forces. General Pershing then organized a separate force, which he called the First American Army, to drive the Germans out of the St. Mihiel salient. This was where the Germans had extended a part of their front to include the town of St. Mihiel on the Meuse (mûz) River. The Germans had made this salient a very strong part of their line.

Our army attacked the salient (September 12, 1918) and drove the Germans out in two days. The French assisted with artillery and airplanes, and the British with bombing planes. Our army lost nearly 7000 in killed and wounded, but it captured nearly 16,000 prisoners.

America's greatest battle.—One of the great battles of the world, the greatest ever fought by Americans, is called the Meuse-Argonne (ar-gŏn′) Offensive. This lasted for forty-seven days (September 26 to November 11, 1918). Our army fired more rounds of ammunition in this battle than the Union forces used during the entire Civil War. The American army numbered more than a million men. Officers unknown to

the general public commanded more men than Lee or Meade at Gettysburg.

The object of this battle was to seize the four-track railroad running east and west through Sedan (se-dăn′). It was necessary for the Germans to hold this road to shift their men and supplies and to save their army in case of defeat.

To avoid confusion in regard to these forty-seven days of fighting, it is necessary to keep in mind two of General Pershing's statements: (1) that "the operations in the Meuse-Argonne battle really form a continuous whole"; and (2) that "Sedan was the strategical goal of the battle."

The Meuse-Argonne field.—In order to understand America's greatest battle, we must know something of the field where it was fought. Let us try to image it as if it were a giant football field. The southern line, from which the Americans started, ran east and west a little north of the fortress of Verdun (vĕr-dŭn′) on the Meuse River. The northern goal line was the railroad running through Sedan. The western side line of the field ran along the western edge of the Argonne Forest. The French held the adjoining section on the west. The eastern side line was

BACK OF THE AMERICAN LINES IN THE ARGONNE

Ammunition, guns and supplies going forward; caissons, ambulances and empty trucks streaming back. U. S. official photograph.

indefinite; it was sometimes more than seventy-five miles from the western line. The way the crow flies, the north and south distance between the goal lines was thirty-four miles. The Meuse River runs through the entire field from southeast to northwest, and the Argonne Forest occupies its southwest corner.

INFANTRY ADVANCING THROUGH THE ARGONNE FOREST

U. S. official photograph. Notice the effect of bullets and shells on the trees.

Nature seemed to have planned the Meuse-Argonne region for defensive fighting. The streams, hills, forests, ravines, and soft ground aided the Germans. Their artillery intrenched on the heights, and their machine guns, concealed in the forests, poured a cross fire on our men as they advanced. Sometimes this fire swept our men off newly constructed bridges as clean as a mower cuts grass. The story of our "lost battalion" shows what might happen in the Argonne Forest. This battalion was surrounded by the unseen foe and was not strong enough to fight its way out. Our men dug "fox holes" for themselves among the roots of trees between a swamp and a hill and held off the Germans for five days. Our soldiers tried to signal their airplanes, hoping that they would drop food, but the signals drew German shell fire. Our men refused the demand for their surrender on the fifth day. That night they were rescued by their division.

Individuality of the soldier.—Trench fighting had been the rule during the preceding four years. But in this campaign the

American Soldier

Americans now had to fight mostly in the open, exposed to machine-gun and artillery fire. American soldiers proved again and again that they could deal with a new situation in a common-sense way. Without consulting an army staff, one division rolled up its sleeves and built a road needed for its advance. Another division adapted itself for twenty-three days to drenching rain, fighting in gassed woods, scaling heights under cross fire with poor support from artillery. Sometimes no officer could keep track of the confused fighting. Individuals and groups then had to be their own officers. The men in one combat group were all killed except a Tennessee mountaineer by the name of Alvin C. York, who then acted for himself. He killed with his own rifle twenty-four Germans, operating machine guns, and captured 132 German soldiers and four officers. An experienced army officer said that the part which our men played "sent an old observer of wars home in pride and gratitude."

Suffering.—During the forty-seven days of the Meuse-Argonne battle there was never one day of clear American sunshine. "We've gotta win this war or we'll all freeze to death," said an American negro. After sleeping on wet ground in autumn mists and rain, some of our young men soon looked ten

Gas Mask

years older. An American winter with its ice and clear sunshine seemed warm in comparison with the autumn mists and rain that kept our soldiers chilled to the bone. "I'd charge a machine-gun nest single-handed, if I could first sit on a steam radiator for half an hour," said a soldier.

AMERICAN SOLDIERS GOING "OVER THE TOP"
Drawn by Kerr Eby, official U. S. Army artist in France.

Victory.—On November 7, 1918, American forces "held the heights dominating Sedan, the strategical goal of the Meuse-Argonne operation." Our army courteously allowed the French to enter Sedan first so that they could wipe out the stain of defeat in the Franco-Prussian War (1870), when the Prussians captured there a French army of 100,000.

The Meuse-Argonne Offensive was fought by an American army commanded entirely by American officers. It was aided by four French divisions. This was more than balanced by the aid which our divisions were giving to the French, British, and Italians at the same time.

The American army lost about 117,000 killed and wounded

during the Meuse-Argonne Offensive. This loss was heavy, but it was less than might have been expected when it is known that twenty-two American and four French divisions "had engaged and decisively beaten forty-seven different German divisions, representing twenty-five per cent of the enemy's entire divisional strength on the west front." The German defense was desperate every one of the forty-seven days of the contest.

The British, the French, and the Italians had also been brilliantly victorious on their fronts, over ground more extensive than the Meuse-Argonne. Germany knew that she was hopelessly beaten, and she asked for an immediate cessation of hostilities to save her forces and to protect her country from invasion. An armistice, drawn so that Germany could not renew the war, was signed November 11, 1918. Bulgaria, Turkey, and Austria had already collapsed. America did not win the war by herself, but she gave the help needed to win it.

Losses.—The World War killed twice as many as all the other wars from the beginning of Washington's administration until 1914, although the 9000 days of the Napoleonic War came in that time. In percentage of men killed in battle, the World War was the bloodiest of all the long-continued wars. The number of battle deaths was 7,668,320. More than 18,000,000 were wounded. Russia's loss was the greatest. Russia had 1,700,000 killed; Germany, 1,600,000; France, 1,385,000; Great Britain and Austria-Hungary, each nearly 1,000,000; the United States, 78,000. The relatively small number of Americans killed was due to the fact that our heavy fighting lasted only 200 days. By way of comparison, we should remember that our Civil War caused the death of nearly 700,000 Union and Confederate soldiers.

Cost of the war.—The United States spent over $32,000,000,000 for carrying on this war. She loaned $9,500,000,000 of this sum to the Allies to assist them in fighting the Central Powers. The World War cost all the fighting nations not less than $244,000,000,000 in money and property loss. It is not

possible to estimate what the total cost of the war will be to the United States. The Revolutionary War ended in 1781, but our country continued to pay pensions on account of the war for 130 years, or until 1911. Hence it may not be possible to compute the money cost of the World War to the United States before the year 2048.

The direct costs of the World War are the least important. Its indirect costs in human life, sorrow, wounds, disease, misery, decreased production, and lower ideals are beyond computation.

Terms of peace.—President Wilson was the chairman of the American delegation to the Peace Conference that met in Paris, January, 1919, to draft the terms of peace. He had stated his views as to proper terms in his "Fourteen Points" (January 8, 1918) and in later speeches. But the terms of the treaty were arrived at by compromise, after long arguments over conflicting interests. The treaty with Germany was signed in June, 1919; it was ratified by the new republican government of Germany and by the Allies, and went into effect early in 1920.

Germany was obliged to give up all her colonies and part of her territory in Europe. She was compelled to restrict her army and navy to small forces and to allow the Allies to fix the sum which she should pay for the losses and damages caused by the war. The United States did not ask for any territory or any indemnity.

The League of Nations.—President Wilson urged the idea of a League of Nations to enforce peace in the world. He did not think the treaty of peace would be lasting unless such a league was made a part of it. The constitution of the League of Nations was therefore included in the treaty, and within two years nearly all the nations of the world joined the League, with six notable exceptions: Russia, Turkey, Germany, Hungary, and Mexico were not yet admitted, and the United States had declined the invitation to join.

The treaty with Germany failed of ratification by the United States Senate because of opposition to the League of Nations

or to some provisions in the constitution of the League. The question of the League therefore became an issue in the presidential election of 1920. The Democrats favored the League as set forth in the treaty of peace, while some Republicans favored it with amendments and some were opposed to any League. The Republican party nominated for the presidency United States Senator Warren G. Harding of Ohio, and for the vice presidency Calvin Coolidge, governor of Massachusetts; they were elected by a plurality of 7,000,000 votes.

Chief events of Harding's administration.—President Harding died suddenly (August 2, 1923) while returning from a trip to Alaska. He was succeeded by Vice President Calvin Coolidge. Among the important measures of Harding's administration were: (1) the restriction of immigration (1921) described on page 529; (2) the adoption of the "budget" system, requiring a careful advance estimate of the expenses of all branches of the national government before money is appropriated to meet them; this system, which politicians had long successfully opposed, helped to prevent the waste of public money; (3) the Fordney-McCumber tariff act (1922), which raised the duty on a number of manufactured and agricultural products; (4) the Armament Conference at Washington (1921–22) and the treaties framed there.

Armament Conference.—The Republican platform contained this sentence: "The Republican party stands for agreement among the nations to preserve the peace of the world." Separate peace treaties, making no mention of a League of Nations, were signed (1921) with Germany and Austria, and President Harding invited the leading nations of the world to a conference on the limitation of armaments, which met at Washington in November, 1921. The representatives of the United States in this conference were Secretary of State Charles E. Hughes, former Secretary of State and Secretary of War Elihu Root, and United States Senators Henry C. Lodge and Oscar Underwood.

The representatives of the United States, Great Britain,

France, Italy, and Japan made a treaty to limit their strength in battleships according to a fixed ratio.

The same five nations also framed a treaty which forbade the use of poison gas in war and such use of the submarine as destroyed the *Lusitania* and afterward brought the United States into the World War (pp. 502, 503).

The United States, Great Britain, France, and Japan agreed to confer with each other if a dispute arose about their rights in their island possessions in the Pacific.

Nine Powers—the United States, the British Empire, Belgium, China, France, Italy, Japan, the Netherlands, and Portugal—framed a treaty to safeguard the rights and interests of China and to maintain the " Open Door " (p. 443) to her trade.

These treaties have greatly reduced naval competition and have lessened the chances for war in the Far East.

The Coolidge Administration.—In November, 1924, the Republicans elected their candidates: Calvin Coolidge for President, and General Charles G. Dawes of Illinois for Vice President. The keynote of the Coolidge administration was economy. Congress reduced expenditures and also reduced the high income taxes due to the World War; but passed, over the President's veto (1924), a bill to increase the compensation of the soldiers of the World War. This " Bonus Bill " provides for endowment insurance, payable to a soldier in twenty years, or to his heirs in case of his death. This bonus will finally amount to about two billion dollars.

The United States did not enter the League of Nations (p. 517) but it took a prominent part in settling the question of German reparations. The method of payment adopted is known as the Dawes Plan because General Charles G. Dawes headed the committee that proposed it (1924). Germany needed to borrow $200,000,000 to put her industries in working order, and Americans subscribed a large part of this sum.

A law was passed (1925) to increase the pay of employees in our postal service. Postage on certain classes of mail

was increased to provide for the added expense, estimated at $68,000,000 a year, but the increase was not sufficient.

There was a marked tendency away from the Sherman Act (p. 471). For instance, the government suggested that farmers might coöperate to market their produce and that certain systems of railroads should be given permission to combine.

The United States voted (1926) to join, under certain limitations, the World Court established by the League of Nations.

Summary of Points of Emphasis for Review.—(1) Why Europe was in danger of war, (2) beginning of the World War, (3) the Central Powers and the Allies, (4) why the United States entered the war, (5) our object in the war, (6) how the army was gathered, (7) welfare of the soldiers, (8) government control and regulation of industry, (9) why war was a new game, (10) work of the navy, (11) Cantigny, (12) Foch and Pershing, (13) Château-Thierry and the second battle of the Marne, (14) organization of separate American army, St. Mihiel, (15) Meuse-Argonne Offensive, its object and how it was fought, (16) losses, (17) terms of peace, (18) League of Nations, (19) chief events of Harding's administration, (20) limitation of armaments treaties, (21) events of the Coolidge administration.

Activities.—Be ready to talk for three minutes on "Why Europe was in Danger of War in 1914."

Explain how fear of defeat led to violation of the rights of neutrals in both the Napoleonic War and the World War. Could a neutral be reasonably expected to keep out of another great war?

From the point of view of an Indian, criticize the white race for its wars and poison gas.

Take your choice of these four activities: (1) Write in fifty words our aim in entering the war. (2) Write 100 words on the new game of war. (3) Make a three-minute speech on the patriotism of Americans at home during the war. (4) Talk for three minutes on welfare work for the soldiers.

Have a class discussion on the direct and indirect costs of the war.

Tell in three minutes why the conference on the limitation of armament was an important event.

References for Teachers.—Seymour, *Woodrow Wilson and the World War* (Chron. of Am.); Paxson, *Recent Hist. U. S.*, XLIV., LV.; Bassett, *Our War with Germany;* McMaster, *United States in the World War;* Simonds, *History of the World War;* Palmer, *Our Greatest Battle* (Meuse-Argonne); Ayres, *War with Germany; A Statistical Summary* (U. S. Govt. Pub.); Davis, *Roots of the War;* Fish, *Development of Am. Nationality,* 543–568; Bogart, *Direct and Indirect Costs of the Great World War.*

For Pupils.—McKinley, Coulomb, and Gerson, *The World War;* Braithwaite, *Story of the Great War;* Empey, *Tales from a Dugout.*

CHAPTER XXXVI

TWENTIETH-CENTURY PROGRESS AND PROBLEMS

Extension of democracy.—Four amendments to the Constitution of the United States became effective between 1910 and 1920. All of them were planned to extend democracy or, in the words of the Constitution, "to promote the general welfare."

The Sixteenth Amendment (1913) gave Congress full power to collect taxes on incomes. Under this provision, large incomes are taxed on a rising scale.

The Seventeenth Amendment (1913) took away from the state legislatures the right to choose United States senators and provided that they should be elected by the people.

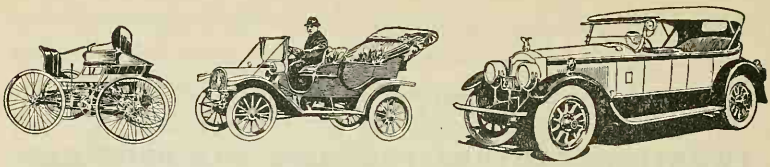
The Eighteenth Amendment, known as the Prohibition Amendment (effective in 1920), prohibited the manufacture, sale, and importation of alcoholic liquors for beverage purposes.

The Nineteenth Amendment (1920), the greatest extension of democracy known in history, is as follows: "The right of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or by any state on account of sex."

A new conquest of sea, land, and air.—The twentieth century has increased man's control over the physical world. The gasoline engine is a modern invention which has furnished the power required for automobiles, airplanes, and submarines, and has thus made great changes in transportation.

The diving boat was developed into the modern submarine which could destroy vessels on the high seas. It became an effective weapon for the first time in the World War (p. 502). This new conquest of the sea by the submarine was the direct cause of the entrance of the United States into that war.

In 1896 a circus advertised that it would exhibit a "horseless vehicle." In that year there were fewer than a dozen automobiles



1894 1902 1922

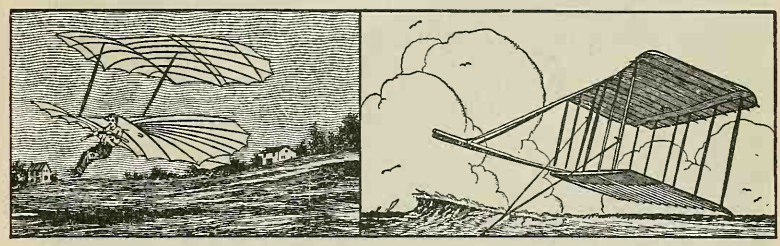
EVOLUTION OF THE AUTOMOBILE

in the United States. New York gave its first automobile show in 1900. The new conquest of transportation on land by the automobile changed twentieth-century life in city and country. The truck, utilized by industry, the tractor, used in plowing, and the tank, invented for the World War, are varieties of the automobile. All are propelled by the gasoline engine. The manufacture of automobiles has become one of the leading industries of the nation.

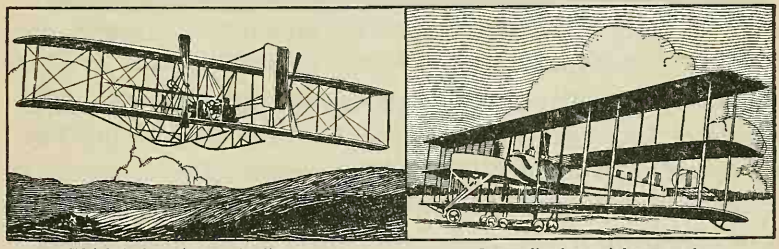
The conquest of the air came in two ways. Wireless telegraphy was made practicable by Marconi, the son of an Italian father and an Irish mother. In 1901 he sent the first wireless message from England to Newfoundland. In 1909 the *Republic*, a European passenger steamer, gave a life-and-death test of the new invention. Her wireless operator sent this message into space: "Struck by an unknown boat. Engine room filled." Her wireless receiver caught the answering electric waves from four unseen vessels: "Coming to help." The *Baltic* reached her in time and saved 1600 passengers. President Wilson, when returning from the Peace Conference in Paris (1919), signed by wireless in mid-ocean two bills passed by the United States Congress. In the same year six doctors on two different vessels kept wireless telephone receivers at their ears while holding a conference over a sick patient.

In the third decade of the twentieth century it became common to use the radio for wireless transmission of speeches, songs, and musical concerts to those who had receiving instruments in their homes or elsewhere. Dwellers in the country felt less lonely because the radio brought them a new world.

The second conquest of the air came from the development of airplanes. Orville and Wilbur Wright of Dayton, Ohio, were the first to succeed (1903) in flying with a machine heavier than air, driven by a gasoline engine. Wilbur Wright went to France, won a prize of twenty thousand francs with his airplane, and secured an order for thirty machines from the French government (1908). An American thus unwittingly helped France pre-



Lilienthal's wing-shaped glider, 1895. Wright's first glider, 1898.

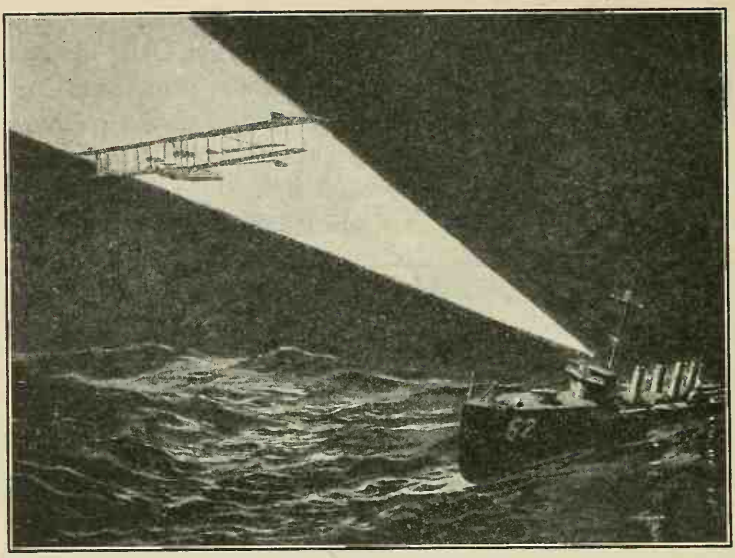


Wright's first airplane in flight, 1903. Caproni's giant triplane, 1916.

EVOLUTION OF THE AIRPLANE

pare for the World War, in which thousands of airplanes were used for offense, for defense, and for learning the location of the enemy's forces.

In the year after the World War, Americans were the first to cross the Atlantic in a seaplane. Three United States naval planes left Newfoundland (May 16, 1919), and one, the NC-4 (Navy Curtiss No. 4) under the command of Lieutenant-Commander Albert C. Read, reached the Azores Islands, a distance of 1200 nautical miles, in fifteen and a quarter hours. After a stop at the Azores, the NC-4 flew to Lisbon, Portugal,



THE NC-4 CROSSING THE ATLANTIC

From a photograph of a painting supplied by the Navy Department.

thus completing the first flight across the Atlantic. She then continued her flight to Plymouth, England, whence the Pilgrims had sailed to the New World 299 years before.

The first nonstop flight across the Atlantic was made in a British airplane (June 14–15, 1919) by Captain John Alcock, an Englishman, and Lieutenant Arthur Brown, an American. They went the distance of 1960 miles from Newfoundland to Ireland in 16 hours. In May, 1927, Captain Charles A. Lindbergh, a heroic young American, flew alone in his airplane from New York to Paris, over 3600 miles, in $33\frac{1}{3}$ hours,—the first nonstop flight from the United States to the continent of Europe.

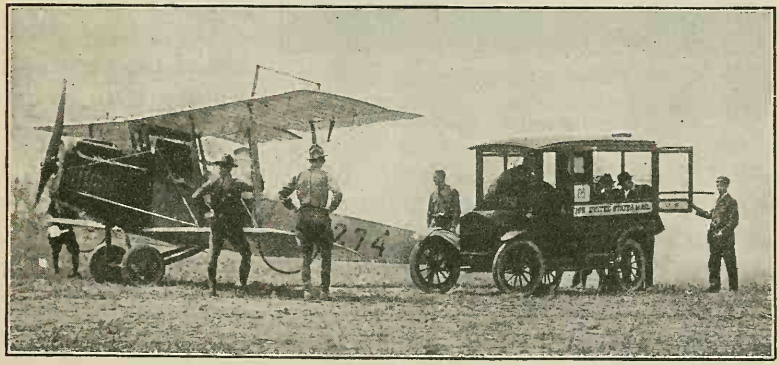
Airplanes have proved valuable for rapid transportation of mail and of passengers. They have been used also for exploring deserts, mountains, and polar regions. Both poles, however, were first reached without their use—the north pole by an American, Robert E. Peary (1909), and the south pole two and a half years later by Norwegian and British explorers.

Twentieth-century problems.—The United States in the twentieth century is trying to pass on to all the people a share in the benefits from the conquest of the sea, land, and air, and from improved methods of production.

The greatest single problem is how to keep America the land of opportunity for all. This problem was easily solved when free government land could be had by any dissatisfied person, but the solution has since become more difficult.

The increase in the number of wage earners (p. 468) caused a great change which our forefathers did not foresee when the majority tilled their own ground. As manufactures rapidly increased, men crowded together to be near their work. Their health, education, amusements, and morals furnished new problems. Since large business could be more economically operated, the control of industry passed into the hands of a smaller number of men and gave them great power. How to make them use this power for the best interests of all was a new problem.

When most men tilled the soil, they belonged to one class. Modern specialized industries caused people to divide into classes according to their work. We thus have miners, farmers, manufacturers, factory hands, bankers, railroad employees, managers, capitalists, and many others. One class often wants a law that



POSTAL AIR SERVICE

Transferring mail sacks from airplane to truck at Washington, D. C., after a flight from New York.

favors it at the expense of other classes. Democracy has the difficult task of educating all to understand that the citizens of this republic must rise or fall together, that any class is really taking steps that must finally lead to suicide if its unfair advantages continue to harm other classes. If a manufacturer pays such low wages that his workmen must live in crowded unsanitary homes and eat poor food, they cannot do so much work nor buy so many manufactured goods. If certain classes of workmen demand such high wages as to discourage capital from investing in the industry that employs them, they soon deprive themselves of employment.

A Crowded City Street

In 1920, about 26 per cent of the people in the United States lived in cities of more than 100,000 population.

The general problem of the twentieth century is to secure the welfare of all human beings, not of one class or of special classes. To solve this problem, democracy needs brains and a sense of justice.

The lunacy test.—Democracy must to-day submit to such a test as the keeper of a lunatic asylum gave to all the patients brought to his institution. He gave them a pail and told them to fill a trough with water. There were in the lower end of this trough several outlets from which the plugs had been removed. If the patients kept on thoughtlessly pouring in water without

trying to learn why it ran out, he called them lunatics, but if they discovered the leaks, searched for the plugs, and stopped the outflow, he considered them sane.

Twentieth-century democracy is trying to pass this test. It is first learning how human effort is wasted and then endeavoring to stop the waste.

Some causes of waste and the remedies.—Sickness, ignorance, unemployment, strife between labor and capital, lack of thrift, and vast outlay for war have caused unnecessary waste.

Nearly thirty per cent of all the men drafted for the World War were physically unfit to serve their country. Sickness, much of which is preventable, has kept more than three million beds constantly filled and has caused a loss of nearly a billion dollars a year to the United States. The twentieth century has tried to stop this waste by putting nurses in the public schools to start children on the right road to keep well. The first public school nurse in the city of New York began her work in 1902. The old practice was to try to seek health only after it had been lost. The Red Cross started a rural health campaign after the World War. States passed laws to secure better health conditions. The United States extended its public-health service.

Ignorance is dangerous and wasteful to the nation. The unskilled worker has the least chance in life and is most likely to be a burden on the community. A democracy cannot afford to have ignorant ditch diggers, even if they furnish cheap labor. They have the ballot and help direct how we shall be governed. Congress made a national appropriation for the better education of workers in all the states (Smith-Hughes Bill, 1917). When it was learned that more than twenty per cent of the soldiers drafted for the World War could neither read a newspaper nor write a letter home, a determined campaign was made against illiteracy. The twentieth century has paid more attention to education because the masses have realized that education alone can take the place of free land as a basis for the success of their children. Education now offers the only hope of advancement.

Unemployment often causes an average loss of two and one half months a year of a worker's time. To stop the waste due to unemployment, the government has tried to improve the health, education, and morals of the masses. Experts have urged the establishment of state and national employment bureaus, the more skillful planning of industries to provide work during all the year, and courts of arbitration to prevent strikes. The Esch-Cummins Act (1920), which ordered the return of the railroads to private control after the World War, tried to prevent railroad strikes by establishing a Railroad Labor Board to hear labor disputes and make recommendations for their settlement. This board was abolished by an act of 1926, which provided for the selection of special boards of arbitration, under the supervision of a Board of Mediation of five members.

Lack of thrift is another leak. Thrift means (1) producing as much as possible and (2) sensible saving for sensible spending. The rich man or the poor man who loafs on his job seems to forget that there is more to divide only when more is produced. If the practice of thrift enabled every one to become a capitalist, many serious twentieth-century problems would be solved. "Every one a capitalist" must be a slogan for democracy.

The greatest waste of all time for all nations has been war. The United States, as we have seen, called a conference of nations (1921) on the limitation of armament to try to lessen such waste. Two great English-speaking countries whose lands touch each other for three thousand miles, had already shown the world what could be successfully done in this direction. For more than a hundred years, Canada and the United States have lived peaceably without spending a cent for fortifications or other military protection against each other (p. 269).

Immigration.— The United States excludes foreign horses, cattle, sheep, and other stock if they are not sound and healthy. Many who think immigration desirable believe that the welfare of the country demands that as much attention be paid to the health of immigrants who are admitted as to the condition of

IMMIGRANTS ENTERING NEW YORK BAY

In the left foreground is the Statue of Liberty holding up her torch to light the world. In the central background may be dimly seen the tall buildings which show the energy and aspiration of the New World.

animals imported. A record of the men conscripted for the World War shows that native-born Americans were healthier than the foreign-born. On the average, 100,000 native Americans furnished nearly a whole regiment of 3500 soldiers more than were secured from 100,000 foreign-born. One regiment may decide a battle in war. Healthy workers are also necessary for business competition. It therefore became evident that stricter physical tests should be applied in admitting immigrants.

In the thirteen years before the World War, twelve and one third million immigrants came to America, chiefly from southern and southeastern Europe. Many of them were of good races that had left their mark on the history of the world, but sometimes fifty per cent of the newcomers could neither read nor write. The average of illiteracy in the older immigration from western Europe had been less than five per cent. The country awoke to the fact that it had more illiterates of its own than it could educate for a generation and that the ballot was dangerous in the hands of any one who could not read. Congress passed a law (1917) excluding aliens over sixteen years of age who could not read English or some other language. Workers called this "labor's protective tariff."

The prospect of an overwhelming number of immigrants who would come to escape the effects of the World War in Europe led Congress (1921) to limit the number of immigrants per year from each country to three per cent of the number of persons from that country resident in the United States in 1910. In 1924 the number per year from each country was limited to two per cent of the number of persons from that country living here in 1890; and Asiatic immigrants were excluded.

Social workers.—The twentieth century has seen the development of a great profession, that of the social worker, whose object is to increase the well-being of people and save human waste. Social workers were first employed chiefly by private welfare organizations, but boards of education, juvenile courts, counties, cities, and industries are also now demanding the

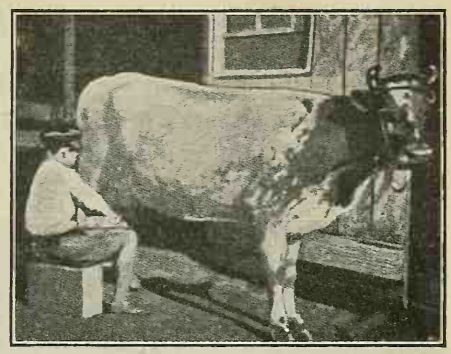
PUBLIC-HEALTH NURSE

services of such workers. The charity-organization visitor is a social worker who not only relieves the present danger of starvation, but plans how to avoid it in the future. The public-health nurse not only helps to cure the sick but teaches the family how to keep well. The truant officer not only returns truants to school but tries to find why children want to be truants. The factory welfare worker endeavors to create a pleasant atmosphere in the workroom by discovering and removing the things that cause friction and irritation.

Social legislation.—One result of the new effort to stop human waste was a striking increase since 1900 in laws for the welfare of human beings. We call such laws "social legislation." Most of the former laws had been passed to protect property. The new social legislation protected human beings. An instance of such legislation is shown by a national law to protect the health of the makers of friction matches. White phosphorus used for the heads of matches poisoned the flesh and bones of the workers until sometimes a whole jaw was eaten away. A few manufacturers said that the Constitution gave Congress no right to interfere. The Constitution does allow Congress to tax, and so it placed a tax of two cents a hundred on phosphorous matches (1912)—and they were no longer used.

The twentieth century has seen every state enact some law to give children a better chance. Child-labor laws, compulsory-

education laws, and laws establishing juvenile courts to prevent children from being treated like hardened criminals, are examples of social legislation by states for the welfare of the child.



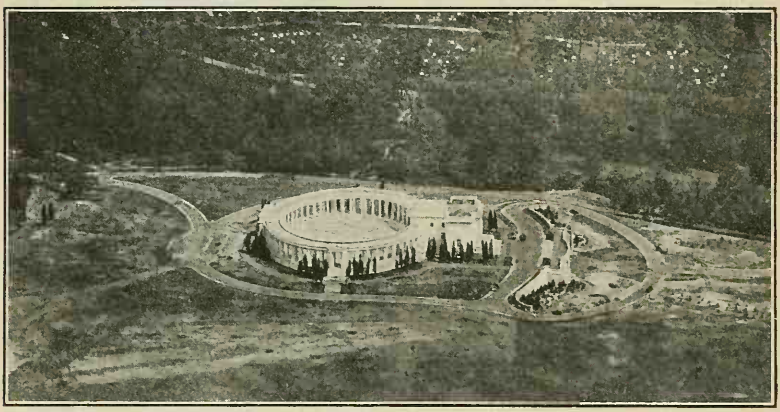
ONE KIND OF CHILD LABOR

This ten-year-old boy helps his fourteen-year-old sister care for seventeen cows, and neither child goes to school. Fortunately, this is no longer a common condition.

Most of the states have passed Workmen's Compensation acts granting an employee compensation for an injury received while working. Most states have enacted some kind of a Mothers' Pension law which provides that a needy mother shall receive a pension sufficient to enable her to remain at home and rear her children. Many states have also passed laws limiting the hours of women's labor to protect their health. A few states have provided that women's wages shall be at least sufficient to maintain health. The human-welfare laws and activities of the twentieth century have already won for it a notable place in history.

Patriotism.—Patriotism or love of country begins first with an appreciation of the service rendered us in our own homes, and then extends to our neighborhood, state, and country. The one who speaks in a slighting way of what his mother has done for him is not likely to be patriotic. She may be sick; if so, it is his duty to try to restore her to health by his service. If our country is suffering from certain ills, the service of our citizens alone can cure them. Patriotism forbids our finding fault with what we do not work hard to remedy. It censures us for being so stupid as to ask: "What can we do?" and for leaving to others the continuous hard task of making a good government. If government is not good in the United States, it is the fault of no one but the people.

Patriotism is more than saluting the flag. It is enlisting for life in active service for our country. We may challenge any one to name any country in the world that has done more for its citizens or given them a greater chance for success. The flocking of millions of immigrants to the United States bears witness to the greatness of its service, which it is our patriotic duty to



ARLINGTON MEMORIAL AS SEEN FROM AN AIRPLANE

Tomb of the Unknown Soldier, and auditorium, in Arlington Cemetery, near Washington, D. C. One unidentified soldier was buried here, in memory of all those who perished in the World War, especially those not identified. Many have died for our country. Patriotism demands service from the living.

repay. George Washington, however, never excused himself from taking his part in the service of his country by asking: "What has my country done for me?" His question was: "What can I do for my country?" It is to such men that we owe our national existence and welfare.

What we owe the world.—After we have appreciated the service of our home and country, we shall be prepared to show the wider patriotism that desires the welfare of the world. Selfish and thoughtless people are apt to think that the world owes them more than they owe it. It will startle us, "the heirs of all the ages," if we try to answer the apparently simple question: "How many worked for us that we might have a plain dinner of bread, potatoes, butter, and meat, with salt, pepper, knife, fork, plate, and napkins?" We shall follow a long trail,

on which we shall find inventors and thousands of other people working for us through the centuries. If we thank every one for his service as we go, beginning with those in our own home, we shall be weary by the time we have found the man who invented the mariner's compass. We shall have to rest many times as we go down the trail leading to the woman who first domesticated the cow, cared for her, and bequeathed her to us.

It will be easier for us to be patriotic after we have stumbled along this trail even a short distance, for we shall realize how much more the world has done for us than we can ever do for it. When we have finished thanking those who gave us music, art, literature, education, and religion, we shall feel still more humble and like doing our best for the world. We shall then better understand that patriotism means the payment of a duty to our home, to our country, and to mankind.

Summary of Points of Emphasis for Review.—(1) How the Sixteenth, Seventeenth, Eighteenth, and Nineteenth amendments affect democracy or the general welfare, (2) new conquest of sea, land, and air, (3) twentieth-century problems, (4) the lunacy test and its application to democracy, (5) sickness, ignorance, unemployment, strikes, lack of thrift, and war as causes of waste, (6) how democracy is trying to remedy this waste, (7) limiting immigration, (8) social workers, (9) the new social legislation, (10) patriotism, (11) what we owe the world.

Activities.—Explain how the constitutional amendments of the second decade of the twentieth century helped extend democracy.

Tell as entertaining a story as you can of the new conquest of sea, land, and air.

Suppose that the nation now owned 500,000,000 acres of good farm, mineral, and timber lands. Explain to the class what difference there would be in our twentieth-century history.

Explain why there is so much poverty when machines make so many more things at lower cost.

Make a five-minute speech suggested by the four sections beginning with "the lunacy test."

Tell the class what is meant by "social legislation."

Relate to an imaginary visitor from Mars how the United States has progressed since 1900.

What would you say to one who asked: "What has this country done for me?"

Give a three-minute talk on "My Idea of an Everyday Patriot."

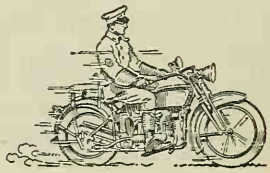
Be able to talk for five minutes on "What the World has done for Us and What We should do in Return."

References for Teachers.—Marshall, *Readings in Industrial Society* (consult Table of Contents); Holland, *Age of Invention* (Chron. of Am.), 220–245; Commons and Andrews, *Principles of Labor Legislation;* Cleveland and Schafer, *Democracy in Reconstruction;* Kelley, *Modern Industry;* King, *Wealth and Income of the People of the U. S.;* Ellwood, *Sociology and Modern Social Problems;* Ogg, *National Progress,* 1907–1917.

For Pupils.—Westervelt, Richardson, and Read, *The Triumph of the N.C.'s* (Navy Curtiss seaplanes); Brown, *Flying the Atlantic in Sixteen Hours;* Darrow, *Boys' Own Book of Great Inventions;* Bachman, *Great Inventors;* David, *Aircraft;* Finch, *Everyday Civics.*

1882

1892



1922

DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE

(Agreed to, July 4, 1776)

[From a facsimile of the original parchment]

In Congress, July 4, 1776

THE UNANIMOUS DECLARATION OF THE THIRTEEN UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

When in the Course of human events, it becomes necessary for one people to dissolve the political bands which have connected them with another, and to assume among the powers of the earth, the separate and equal station to which the Laws of Nature and of Nature's God entitle them, a decent respect to the opinions of mankind requires that they should declare the causes which impel them to the separation. — We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men are created equal, that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable Rights, that among these are Life, Liberty and the pursuit of Happiness. — That to secure these rights, Governments are instituted among Men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed. — That whenever any Form of Government becomes destructive of these ends, it is the Right of the People to alter or to abolish it, and to institute new Government, laying its foundation on such principles and organizing its powers in such form, as to them shall seem most likely to effect their Safety and Happiness. Prudence, indeed, will dictate that Governments long established should not be changed for light and transient causes; and accordingly all experience hath shewn, that mankind are more disposed to suffer, while evils are sufferable, than to right themselves by abolishing the forms to which they are accustomed. But when a long train of abuses and usurpations, pursuing invariably the same Object evinces a design to reduce them under absolute Despotism, it is their right, it is their duty, to throw off such Government, and to provide new Guards for their future security. — Such has been the patient sufferance of these Colonies; and such is now the necessity which constrains them to alter their former Systems of Government. The history of the present King of Great Britain is a history of repeated injuries and usurpations, all having in direct object the establishment of an absolute Tyranny over these States. To prove

this, let Facts be submitted to a candid world. — He has refused his Assent to Laws, the most wholesome and necessary for the public good. — He has forbidden his Governors to pass Laws of immediate and pressing importance, unless suspended in their operation till his Assent should be obtained; and when so suspended, he has utterly neglected to attend to them. — He has refused to pass other Laws for the accommodation of large districts of people, unless those people would relinquish the right of Representation in the Legislature, a right inestimable to them and formidable to tyrants only. — He has called together legislative bodies at places unusual, uncomfortable, and distant from the depository of their public Records, for the sole purpose of fatiguing them into compliance with his measures. — He has dissolved Representative Houses repeatedly, for opposing with manly firmness his invasions on the rights of the people. — He has refused for a long time, after such dissolutions, to cause others to be elected; whereby the Legislative powers, incapable of Annihilation, have returned to the People at large for their exercise; the State remaining in the mean time exposed to all the dangers of invasion from without, and convulsions within. — He has endeavoured to prevent the population of these States; for that purpose obstructing the Laws for Naturalization of Foreigners; refusing to pass others to encourage their migrations hither, and raising the conditions of new Appropriations of Lands. — He has obstructed the Administration of Justice, by refusing his Assent to Laws for establishing Judiciary powers. — He has made Judges dependent on his Will alone, for the tenure of their offices, and the amount and payment of their salaries. — He has erected a multitude of New Offices, and sent hither swarms of Officers to harrass our people, and eat out their substance. — He has kept among us, in times of peace, Standing Armies without the Consent of our legislatures. — He has affected to render the Military independent of and superior to the Civil power. — He has combined with others to subject us to a jurisdiction foreign to our constitution, and unacknowledged by our laws; giving his Assent to their Acts of pretended Legislation: — For quartering large bodies of armed troops among us: — For protecting them, by a mock Trial, from punishment for any Murders which they should commit on the Inhabitants of these States: — For cutting off our Trade with all parts of the world: — For imposing Taxes on us without our Consent: — For depriving us in many cases, of the benefits of Trial by Jury: — For transporting us beyond Seas to be tried for pretended offences: — For abolishing the free System of English Laws in a neighbouring Province, establishing therein an Arbitrary government, and enlarging its Boundaries, so as to render it at once an example and fit instrument for introducing the same absolute rule into

these Colonies: — For taking away our Charters, abolishing our most valuable Laws, and altering fundamentally the Forms of our Governments: — For suspending our own Legislatures, and declaring themselves invested with power to legislate for us in all cases whatsoever. — He has abdicated Government here, by declaring us out of his Protection and waging War against us. — He has plundered our seas, ravaged our Coasts, burnt our towns, and destroyed the Lives of our people. — He is at this time transporting large Armies of foreign Mercenaries to compleat the works of death, desolation and tyranny, already begun with circumstances of Cruelty & perfidy scarcely paralleled in the most barbarous ages, and totally unworthy the Head of a civilized nation. — He has constrained our fellow Citizens taken Captive on the high Seas to bear Arms against their Country, to become the executioners of their friends and Brethren, or to fall themselves by their Hands. — He has excited domestic insurrections amongst us, and has endeavoured to bring on the inhabitants of our frontiers, the merciless Indian Savages, whose known rule of warfare, is an undistinguished destruction of all ages, sexes and conditions. In every stage of these Oppressions We have Petitioned for Redress in the most humble terms: Our repeated Petitions have been answered only by repeated injury. A Prince, whose character is thus marked by every act which may define a Tyrant, is unfit to be the ruler of a free people. Nor have We been wanting in attentions to our Brittish brethren. We have warned them from time to time of attempts by their legislature to extend an unwarrantable jurisdiction over us. We have reminded them of the circumstances of our emigration and settlement here. We have appealed to their native justice and magnanimity, and we have conjured them by the ties of our common kindred to disavow these usurpations, which, would inevitably interrupt our connections and correspondence. They too have been deaf to the voice of justice and of consanguinity. We must, therefore, acquiesce in the necessity, which denounces our Separation, and hold them, as we hold the rest of mankind, Enemies in War, in Peace Friends. —

We, therefore, the Representatives of the united States of America, in General Congress, Assembled, appealing to the Supreme Judge of the world for the rectitude of our intentions, do, in the Name, and by Authority of the good People of these Colonies, solemnly publish and declare, That these United Colonies are, and of Right ought to be, Free and Independent States; that they are Absolved from all Allegiance to the British Crown, and that all political connection between them and the State of Great Britain, is and ought to be totally dissolved; and that as Free and Independent States, they have full Power to levy

War, conclude Peace, contract Alliances, establish Commerce, and to do all other Acts and Things which Independent States may of right do. — And for the support of this Declaration, with a firm reliance on the protection of divine Providence, we mutually pledge to each other our Lives, our Fortunes and our sacred Honor.

JOHN HANCOCK.

[Signatures of representatives of the thirteen States, affixed under date of August 2, 1776.]

NEW HAMPSHIRE.
Josiah Bartlett,
William Whipple,
Matthew Thornton.

MASSACHUSETTS BAY.
Samuel Adams,
John Adams,
Robert Treat Paine,
Elbridge Gerry.

RHODE ISLAND.
Stephen Hopkins,
William Ellery.

CONNECTICUT.
Roger Sherman,
Samuel Huntington,
William Williams,
Oliver Wolcott.

NEW YORK.
William Floyd,
Philip Livingston,
Francis Lewis,
Lewis Morris.

NEW JERSEY.
Richard Stockton,
John Witherspoon,
Francis Hopkinson,
John Hart,
Abraham Clark.

PENNSYLVANIA.
Robert Morris,
Benjamin Rush,
Benjamin Franklin,
John Morton,
George Clymer,
James Smith,
George Taylor,
James Wilson,
George Ross.

DELAWARE.
Cæsar Rodney,
George Read,
Thomas M'Kean.

MARYLAND.
Samuel Chase,
William Paca,
Thomas Stone,
Charles Carroll, of Carrollton.

VIRGINIA.
George Wythe,
Richard Henry Lee,
Thomas Jefferson,
Benjamin Harrison,
Thomas Nelson, Jun.,
Francis Lightfoot Lee,
Carter Braxton.

NORTH CAROLINA.
William Hooper,
Joseph Hewes,
John Penn.

SOUTH CAROLINA.
Edward Rutledge,
Thomas Heyward, Jun.,
Thomas Lynch, Jun.,
Arthur Middleton.

GEORGIA.
Button Gwinnett,
Lyman Hall,
George Walton.

CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES

[From the Constitution in the Department of State, except the headings in bold-faced type, which are inserted for the reader's convenience]

Preamble. We the people of the United States, in order to form a more perfect union, establish justice, insure domestic tranquillity, provide for the common defense, promote the general welfare, and secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity, do ordain and establish this Constitution for the United States of America.

ARTICLE I. LEGISLATIVE DEPARTMENT

SECTION 1. Congress

Legislative powers vested. All legislative powers herein granted shall be vested in a Congress of the United States, which shall consist of a Senate and House of Representatives.

SECTION 2. House of Representatives

1. **Composition; term; election.** The House of Representatives shall be composed of members chosen every second year by the people of the several States, and the electors in each State shall have the qualifications requisite for electors of the most numerous branch of the State legislature.

2. **Qualifications.** No person shall be a representative who shall not have attained to the age of twenty-five years, and been seven years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that State in which he shall be chosen.

3. **Apportionment of representatives and direct taxes.** Representatives and direct taxes shall be apportioned among the several States which may be included within this Union, according to their respective numbers, which shall be determined by adding to the whole number of free persons, including those bound to service for a term of years, and excluding Indians not taxed, three fifths of all other persons.[1] The actual enumeration shall be made within three years after the first meeting of the Congress of the United States, and within every subsequent term of ten years, in such manner as they shall by law direct. The number of representatives shall not exceed one for every thirty thousand, but each State shall have at least one representative; and until such enumeration shall be made, the State of New Hampshire shall be entitled to choose three, Massachusetts eight, Rhode Island and Providence Plantations one, Connecticut five, New York six, New Jersey four, Pennsylvania eight, Delaware one, Maryland six, Virginia ten, North Carolina five, South Carolina five, and Georgia three.

4. **Filling vacancies.** When vacancies happen in the representation from any State, the executive authority thereof shall issue writs of election to fill such vacancies.

5. **Officers; impeachment.** The House of Representatives shall choose their speaker and other officers, and shall have the sole power of impeachment.

[1] Modified by the 14th and 16th Amendments.

Section 3. Senate

1. **Composition; term.** The Senate of the United States shall be composed of two senators from each State, chosen [by the legislature thereof][1] for six years; and each senator shall have one vote.

2. **Classification.** Immediately after they shall be assembled in consequence of the first election, they shall be divided as equally as may be into three classes. The seats of the senators of the first class shall be vacated at the expiration of the second year, of the second class at the expiration of the fourth year, and of the third class at the expiration of the sixth year, so that one third may be chosen every second year; [and if vacancies happen by resignation, or otherwise during the recess of the legislature of any State, the executive thereof may make temporary appointments until the next meeting of the legislature, which shall then fill such vacancies.][2]

3. **Qualifications.** No person shall be a senator who shall not have attained to the age of thirty years, and been nine years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that State for which he shall be chosen.

4. **President of Senate.** The Vice President of the United States shall be President of the Senate, but shall have no vote, unless they be equally divided.

5. **Other officers.** The Senate shall choose their other officers, and also a president *pro tempore*, in the absence of the Vice President, or when he shall exercise the office of President of the United States.

6. **Trial of impeachments.** The Senate shall have the sole power to try all impeachments. When sitting for that purpose, they shall be on oath or affirmation. When the President of the United States is tried, the chief justice shall preside: and no person shall be convicted without the concurrence of two thirds of the members present.

7. **Judgment in case of conviction.** Judgment in cases of impeachment shall not extend further than to removal from office, and disqualification to hold and enjoy any office of honor, trust or profit under the United States: but the party convicted shall nevertheless be liable and subject to indictment, trial, judgment and punishment, according to law.

Section 4. Both Houses

1. **Regulation of elections.** The times, places, and manner of holding elections for senators and representatives, shall be prescribed in each State by the legislature thereof; but the Congress may at any time by law make or alter such regulations, except as to the places of choosing senators.

2. **Meeting of Congress.** The Congress shall assemble at least once in every year, and such meeting shall be on the first Monday in December, unless they shall by law appoint a different day.

Section 5. The Houses Separately

1. **Admission of members; quorum.** Each House shall be the judge of the elections, returns and qualifications of its own members, and a majority of each shall constitute a quorum to do business; but a smaller number may adjourn from day to day, and may be authorized to compel the attendance of absent members, in such manner, and under such penalties as each House may provide.

2. **Rules of proceeding.** Each House may determine the rules of its proceedings, punish its members for disorderly behavior, and, with the concurrence of two thirds, expel a member.

3. **Journal.** Each House shall keep a journal of its proceedings, and from time to time publish the same, excepting such parts as may in their judgment require secrecy; and the yeas and nays of the members of either House on

[1] Superseded by the 17th Amendment.

[2] Superseded by the 17th Amendment.

any question shall, at the desire of one fifth of those present, be entered on the journal.

4. **Adjournment.** Neither House, during the session of Congress, shall, without the consent of the other, adjourn for more than three days, nor to any other place than that in which the two Houses shall be sitting.

Section 6. Privileges and Disabilities of Members

1. **Pay and privileges of members.** The senators and representatives shall receive a compensation for their services, to be ascertained by law, and paid out of the Treasury of the United States. They shall in all cases, except treason, felony and breach of the peace, be privileged from arrest during their attendance at the session of their respective Houses, and in going to and returning from the same; and for any speech or debate in either House, they shall not be questioned in any other place.

2. **Holding other offices prohibited.** No senator or representative shall, during the time for which he was elected, be appointed to any civil office under the authority of the United States, which shall have been created, or the emoluments whereof shall have been increased during such time; and no person holding any office under the United States shall be a member of either House during his continuance in office.

Section 7. Method of Making Laws

1. **Revenue bills.** All bills for raising revenue shall originate in the House of Representatives; but the Senate may propose or concur with amendments as on other bills.

2. **How bills become laws.** Every bill which shall have passed the House of Representatives and the Senate, shall, before it become a law, be presented to the President of the United States; if he approve he shall sign it, but if not he shall return it, with his objections to that House in which it shall have originated, who shall enter the objections at large on their journal, and proceed to reconsider it. If after such reconsideration two thirds of that House shall agree to pass the bill, it shall be sent, together with the objections, to the other House, by which it shall likewise be reconsidered, and if approved by two thirds of that House, it shall become a law. But in all such cases the votes of both Houses shall be determined by yeas and nays, and the names of the persons voting for and against the bill shall be entered on the journal of each House respectively. If any bill shall not be returned by the President within ten days (Sundays excepted) after it shall have been presented to him, the same shall be a law, in like manner as if he had signed it, unless the Congress by their adjournment prevent its return, in which case it shall not be a law.

3. **The President's approval or disapproval (veto power).** Every order, resolution, or vote to which the concurrence of the Senate and House of Representatives may be necessary (except on a question of adjournment) shall be presented to the President of the United States; and before the same shall take effect, shall be approved by him, or being disapproved by him, shall be repassed by two thirds of the Senate and House of Representatives, according to the rules and limitations prescribed in the case of a bill.

Section 8. Powers Granted to Congress

1–17. **Enumerated powers.** 1. The Congress shall have power to lay and collect taxes, duties, imposts and excises, to pay the debts and provide for the common defense and general welfare of the United States; but all duties, imposts and excises shall be uniform throughout the United States;

2. To borrow money on the credit of the United States;

3. To regulate commerce with foreign nations, and among the several States, and with the Indian tribes;

4. To establish an uniform rule of naturalization, and uniform laws on the subject of bankruptcies throughout the United States;

5. To coin money, regulate the value thereof, and of foreign coin, and fix the standard of weights and measures;

6. To provide for the punishment of counterfeiting the securities and current coin of the United States;

7. To establish post offices and post roads;

8. To promote the progress of science and useful arts by securing for limited times to authors and inventors the exclusive right to their respective writings and discoveries;

9. To constitute tribunals inferior to the Supreme Court;

10. To define and punish piracies and felonies committed on the high seas, and offenses against the law of nations;

11. To declare war, grant letters of marque and reprisal, and make rules concerning captures on land and water;

12. To raise and support armies, but no appropriation of money to that use shall be for a longer term than two years;

13. To provide and maintain a navy;

14. To make rules for the government and regulation of the land and naval forces;

15. To provide for calling forth the militia to execute the laws of the Union, suppress insurrections and repel invasions;

16. To provide for organizing, arming, and disciplining the militia, and for governing such part of them as may be employed in the service of the United States, reserving to the States respectively the appointment of the officers, and the authority of training the militia according to the discipline prescribed by Congress;

17. To exercise exclusive legislation in all cases whatsoever, over such district (not exceeding ten miles square) as may, by cession of particular States and the acceptance of Congress, become the seat of the government of the United States, and to exercise like authority over all places purchased by the consent of the legislature of the State in which the same shall be, for the erection of forts, magazines, arsenals, dockyards, and other needful buildings; and

18. **Implied powers.** To make all laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into execution the foregoing powers, and all other powers vested by this Constitution in the government of the United States, or in any department or officer thereof.[1]

Section 9. Powers Forbidden to the United States[2]

1–6. **Prohibitions on Congress.** 1. The migration or importation of such persons as any of the States now existing shall think proper to admit, shall not be prohibited by the Congress prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight, but a tax or duty may be imposed on such importation, not exceeding ten dollars for each person.

2. The privilege of the writ of *habeas corpus* shall not be suspended, unless when in cases of rebellion or invasion the public safety may require it.

3. No bill of attainder or *ex post facto* law shall be passed.

4. No capitation, or other direct, tax shall be laid, unless in proportion to the census or enumeration herein before directed to be taken.

5. No tax or duty shall be laid on articles exported from any State.

6. No preference shall be given by any regulation of commerce or revenue to the ports of one State over those of another: nor shall vessels bound to, or from, one State be obliged to enter, clear, or pay duties in another.

[1] The so-called "Elastic Clause" of the Constitution.

[2] For other powers forbidden to the United States, see Amendments 1 to 10.

7. **Public money, how drawn.** No money shall be drawn from the treasury, but in consequence of appropriations made by law; and a regular statement and account of the receipts and expenditures of all public money shall be published from time to time.

8. **Titles of nobility prohibited.** No title of nobility shall be granted by the United States: and no person holding any office of profit or trust under them, shall, without the consent of the Congress, accept of any present, emolument, office, or title of any kind whatever, from any king, prince, or foreign State.

Section 10. Powers Forbidden to States

1. **Absolute prohibitions on the states.** No State shall enter into any treaty, alliance, or confederation; grant letters of marque and reprisal; coin money; emit bills of credit; make anything but gold and silver coin a tender in payment of debts; pass any bill of attainder, *ex post facto* law, or law impairing the obligation of contracts, or grant any title of nobility.

2. **States not to levy duties.** No State shall, without the consent of the Congress, lay any imposts or duties on imports or exports, except what may be absolutely necessary for executing its inspection laws: and the net produce of all duties and imposts laid by any State on imports or exports, shall be for the use of the treasury of the United States; and all such laws shall be subject to the revision and control of the Congress.

3. **Other prohibitions on the states.** No State shall, without the consent of Congress, lay any duty of tonnage, keep troops, or ships of war in time of peace, enter into any agreement or compact with another State, or with a foreign power, or engage in war, unless actually invaded, or in such imminent danger as will not admit of delay.

ARTICLE II. EXECUTIVE DEPARTMENT

Section 1. President and Vice President

1. **Executive power vested; term of President.** The executive power shall be vested in a President of the United States of America. He shall hold his office during the term of four years, and, together with the Vice President, chosen for the same term, be elected as follows

2. **Electors.** Each State shall appoint, in such manner as the legislature thereof may direct, a number of electors, equal to the whole number of senators and representatives to which the State may be entitled in the Congress: but no senator or representative, or person holding an office of trust or profit under the United States, shall be appointed an elector.

Former method of electing President and Vice President.[1] [The electors shall meet in their respective States, and vote by ballot for two persons, of whom one at least shall not be an inhabitant of the same State with themselves. And they shall make a list of all the persons voted for, and of the number of votes for each; which list they shall sign and certify, and transmit sealed to the seat of the government of the United States, directed to the president of the Senate. The president of the Senate shall, in the presence of the Senate and House of Representatives, open all the certificates, and the votes shall then be counted. The person having the greatest number of votes shall be the President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if there be more than one who have such majority, and have an equal number of votes, then the House of Representatives shall immediately choose by ballot one of them for President; and if no person have a majority, then from the five highest on the list the said house shall in like manner choose the President. But in choosing the President, the votes shall be taken by States, the representation

[1] This paragraph is superseded by the 12th Amendment.

from each State having one vote; a quorum for this purpose shall consist of a member or members from two thirds of the States, and a majority of all the States shall be necessary to a choice. In every case, after the choice of the President, the person having the greatest number of votes of the electors shall be the Vice President. But if there should remain two or more who have equal votes, the Senate shall choose from them by ballot the Vice President.]

3. **Time of elections.** The Congress may determine the time of choosing the electors, and the day on which they shall give their votes; which day shall be the same throughout the United States.

4. **Qualifications of the President.** No person except a natural born citizen, or a citizen of the United States, at the time of the adoption of this Constitution, shall be eligible to the office of President; neither shall any person be eligible to that office who shall not have attained to the age of thirty-five years, and been fourteen years a resident within the United States.

5. **Provision in case of the President's disability.** In case of the removal of the President from office, or of his death, resignation, or inability to discharge the powers and duties of the said office, the same shall devolve on the Vice President, and the Congress may by law provide for the case of removal, death, resignation, or inability, both of the President and Vice President, declaring what officer shall then act as President, and such officer shall act accordingly, until the disability be removed, or a President shall be elected.

6. **The President's salary.** The President shall, at stated times, receive for his services a compensation, which shall neither be increased nor diminished during the period for which he shall have been elected, and he shall not receive within that period any other emolument from the United States, or any of them.

7. **Oath of office.** Before he enter on the execution of his office, he shall take the following oath or affirmation:—"I do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I will faithfully execute the office of President of the United States, and will to the best of my ability, preserve, protect and defend the Constitution of the United States."

Section 2. Powers of the President

1. **Military powers; reprieves and pardons.** The President shall be commander in chief of the army and navy of the United States, and of the militia of the several States, when called into the actual service of the United States; he may require the opinion, in writing, of the principal officer in each of the executive departments, upon any subject relating to the duties of their respective offices, and he shall have power to grant reprieves and pardons for offenses against the United States, except in cases of impeachment.

2. **Treaties; appointments.** He shall have power, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, to make treaties, provided two thirds of the senators present concur; and he shall nominate, and by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, shall appoint ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls, judges of the Supreme Court, and all other officers of the United States, whose appointments are not herein otherwise provided for, and which shall be established by law: but the Congress may by law vest the appointment of such inferior officers, as they think proper, in the President alone, in the courts of law, or in the heads of departments.

3. **Filling vacancies.** The President shall have power to fill up all vacancies that may happen during the recess of the Senate, by granting commissions which shall expire at the end of their next session.

Section 3. Other Powers and Duties

Messages; extra sessions; receiving ambassadors; execution of laws. He shall from time to time give to the Congress information of the state of the Union, and recommend to their consideration such measures as he shall

judge necessary and expedient; he may, on extraordinary occasions, convene both Houses, or either of them, and in case of disagreement between them with respect to the time of adjournment, he may adjourn them to such time as he shall think proper; he shall receive ambassadors and other public ministers; he shall take care that the laws be faithfully executed, and shall commission all the officers of the United States.

Section 4. Impeachment

How officers may be removed. The President, Vice President, and all civil officers of the United States, shall be removed from office on impeachment for, and conviction of, treason, bribery, or other high crimes and misdemeanors.

ARTICLE III. JUDICIAL DEPARTMENT

Section 1. Federal Courts

Judicial power vested; judges. The judicial power of the United States shall be vested in one Supreme Court, and in such inferior courts as the Congress may from time to time ordain and establish. The judges, both of the Supreme and inferior courts, shall hold their offices during good behavior, and shall, at stated times, receive for their services, a compensation which shall not be diminished during their continuance in office.

Section 2. Jurisdiction of United States Courts

1. **Federal courts in general.** The judicial power shall extend to all cases, in law and equity, arising under this Constitution, the laws of the United States, and treaties made, or which shall be made, under their authority;—to all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls;—to all cases of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction;—to controversies to which the United States shall be a party;—to controversies between two or more States;—between a State and citizens of another State;[1]—between citizens of different States,—between citizens of the same State claiming lands under grants of different States, and between a State, or the citizens thereof, and foreign States, citizens or subjects.

2. **Supreme Court.** In all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls, and those in which a State shall be party, the Supreme Court shall have original jurisdiction. In all the other cases before mentioned, the Supreme Court shall have appellate jurisdiction, both as to law and fact, with such exceptions, and under such regulations as the Congress shall make.

3. **Rules respecting trials.** The trial of all crimes, except in cases of impeachment, shall be by jury; and such trial shall be held in the State where the said crimes shall have been committed; but when not committed within any State, the trial shall be at such place or places as the Congress may by law have directed.

Section 3. Treason

1. **Treason defined; evidence necessary.** Treason against the United States, shall consist only in levying war against them, or in adhering to their enemies, giving them aid and comfort. No person shall be convicted of treason unless on the testimony of two witnesses to the same overt act, or on confession in open court.

2. **How punished.** The Congress shall have power to declare the punishment of treason, but no attainder of treason shall work corruption of blood, or forfeiture except during the life of the person attainted.

[1] The 11th Amendment restricts this clause to apply only to suits by a state against citizens of another state.

ARTICLE IV. RELATIONS OF THE STATES

SECTION 1 Credit to Acts, Records, and Court Proceedings

Interstate comity. Full faith and credit shall be given in each State to the public acts, records, and judicial proceedings of every other State. And the Congress may by general laws prescribe the manner in which such acts, records and proceedings shall be proved, and the effect thereof.

SECTION 2. Duties of States to States

1. **Privileges of citizens of states.** The citizens of each State shall be entitled to all privileges and immunities of citizens in the several States.

2. **Extradition.** A person charged in any State with treason, felony, or other crime, who shall flee from justice, and be found in another State, shall on demand of the executive authority of the State from which he fled, be delivered up to be removed to the State having jurisdiction of the crime.

3. **Fugitive slaves.** No person held to service or labor in one State, under the laws thereof, escaping into another, shall, in consequence of any law or regulation therein, be discharged from such service or labor, but shall be delivered up on claim of the party to whom such service or labor may be due.[1]

SECTION 3. New States and Territories

1. **New states, how formed and admitted.** New States may be admitted by the Congress into this Union; but no new State shall be formed or erected within the jurisdiction of any other State; nor any State be formed by the junction of two or more States, or parts of States, without the consent of the legislatures of the States concerned as well as of the Congress.

2. **Power of Congress over territory and property.** The Congress shall have power to dispose of and make all needful rules and regulations respecting the territory or other property belonging to the United States; and nothing in this Constitution shall be so construed as to prejudice any claims of the United States, or of any particular State.

SECTION 4. Protection to the States

Republican government; protection against invasion and rebellion. The United States shall guarantee to every State in this Union a republican form of government, and shall protect each of them against invasion; and on application of the legislature, or of the executive (when the legislature cannot be convened) against domestic violence.

ARTICLE V. AMENDMENTS

How the Constitution may be amended. The Congress, whenever two thirds of both Houses shall deem it necessary, shall propose amendments to this Constitution, or, on the application of the legislatures of two thirds of the several States, shall call a convention for proposing amendments, which, in either case, shall be valid to all intents and purposes, as part of this Constitution, when ratified by the legislatures of three fourths of the several States, or by conventions in three fourths thereof, as the one or the other mode of ratification may be proposed by the Congress; Provided that no amendment which may be made prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight shall in any manner affect the first and fourth clauses in the ninth section of the first article; and that no State, without its consent, shall be deprived of its equal suffrage in the Senate.

[1] This clause was practically superseded by the 13th Amendment.

ARTICLE VI. GENERAL PROVISIONS

1. **Validity of debts recognized.** All debts contracted and engagements entered into, before the adoption of this Constitution, shall be as valid against the United States under this Constitution, as under the Confederation.

2. **Supreme law of the land.** This Constitution, and the laws of the United States which shall be made in pursuance thereof; and all treaties made, or which shall be made, under the authority of the United States, shall be the supreme law of the land; and the judges in every State shall be bound thereby, anything in the Constitution or laws of any State to the contrary notwithstanding.

3. **Official oath.** The senators and representatives before mentioned, and the members of the several State legislatures, and all executive and judicial officers, both of the United States, and of the several States, shall be bound by oath or affirmation to support this Constitution; but no religious test shall ever be required as a qualification to any office or public trust under the United States

ARTICLE VII. RATIFICATION OF THE CONSTITUTION

When the Constitution should go into effect. The ratification of the conventions of nine States shall be sufficient for the establishment of this Constitution between the States so ratifying the same.

Done in Convention by the unanimous consent of the States present the seventeenth day of September in the year of our Lord one thousand seven hundred and eighty-seven, and of the independence of the United States of America the twelfth. In witness whereof we have hereunto subscribed our names,

Go: WASHINGTON—
Presidt. and Deputy from Virginia.

(Signed also by thirty-eight other delegates, from twelve states.)

AMENDMENTS TO THE CONSTITUTION

ARTICLES I–X[1]. BILL OF RIGHTS

ARTICLE I

Freedom of religion, speech, the press, and of assembly and petition. Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof; or abridging the freedom of speech, or of the press; or the right of the people peaceably to assemble, and to petition the government for a redress of grievances.

ARTICLE II

Right to bear arms. A well regulated militia, being necessary to the security of a free State, the right of the people to keep and bear arms, shall not be infringed.

ARTICLE III

Quartering of troops. No soldier shall, in time of peace, be quartered in any house, without the consent of the owner, nor in time of war. but in a manner to be prescribed by law.

[1] The first ten Amendments were adopted in 1791.

ARTICLE IV

Protection against search. The right of the people to be secure in their persons, houses, papers, and effects, against unreasonable searches and seizures, shall not be violated, and no warrants shall issue, but upon probable cause, supported by oath or affirmation, and particularly describing the place to be searched, and the persons or things to be seized.

ARTICLE V

The individual guaranteed protection in trials and the right to his life, liberty, and property. No person shall be held to answer for a capital, or otherwise infamous crime, unless on a presentment or indictment of a grand jury, except in cases arising in the land or naval forces, or in the militia, when in actual service in time of war or public danger; nor shall any person be subject for the same offense to be twice put in jeopardy of life or limb; nor shall be compelled in any criminal case to be a witness against himself, nor be deprived of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor shall private property be taken for public use without just compensation.

ARTICLE VI

Rights of an accused person in criminal cases. In all criminal prosecutions, the accused shall enjoy the right to a speedy and public trial, by an impartial jury of the State and district wherein the crime shall have been committed, which district shall have been previously ascertained by law, and to be informed of the nature and cause of the accusation; to be confronted with the witnesses against him; to have compulsory process for obtaining witnesses in his favor and to have the assistance of counsel for his defense.

ARTICLE VII

Suits at common law. In suits at common law, where the value in controversy shall exceed twenty dollars, the right of trial by jury shall be preserved, and no fact tried by a jury shall be otherwise reëxamined in any court of the United States, than according to the rules of the common law.

ARTICLE VIII

Bail, fines, punishment. Excessive bail shall not be required, nor excessive fines imposed, nor cruel and unusual punishments inflicted.

ARTICLE IX

Regarding rights not enumerated. The enumeration in the Constitution of certain rights shall not be construed to deny or disparage others retained by the people.

ARTICLE X

Powers reserved to states and the people. The powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the States, are reserved to the States respectively, or to the people.

ARTICLE XI[1]. STATES NOT TO BE SUED

Amendment to Article III, Section 2, Clause 1. The judicial power of the United States shall not be construed to extend to any suit in law or equity, commenced or prosecuted against one of the United States, by citizens of another State, or by citizens or subjects of any foreign State.

[1] Adopted in 1798.

ARTICLE XII[1]. ELECTION OF PRESIDENT AND VICE PRESIDENT

Amendment to Article II, Section 1, Clause 2. The electors shall meet in their respective States, and vote by ballot for President and Vice President, one of whom, at least, shall not be an inhabitant of the same State with themselves; they shall name in their ballots the person voted for as President, and in distinct ballots the person voted for as Vice President, and they shall make distinct lists of all persons voted for as President and of all persons voted for as Vice President, and of the number of votes for each, which lists they shall sign and certify, and transmit sealed to the seat of the government of the United States, directed to the president of the Senate;—The president of the Senate shall, in the presence of the Senate and House of Representatives, open all the certificates and the votes shall then be counted;—The person having the greatest number of votes for President shall be the President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if no person have such majority, then from the persons having the highest numbers not exceeding three on the list of those voted for as President, the House of Representatives shall choose immediately, by ballot, the President. But in choosing the President, the votes shall be taken by States, the representation from each State having one vote; a quorum for this purpose shall consist of a member or members from two thirds of the States, and a majority of all the States shall be necessary to a choice. And if the House of Representatives shall not choose a President whenever the right of choice shall devolve upon them, before the fourth day of March next following, then the Vice President shall act as President, as in the case of the death or other constitutional disability of the President. The person having the greatest number of votes as Vice President shall be the Vice President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed, and if no person have a majority, then from the two highest numbers on the list, the Senate shall choose the Vice President; a quorum for the purpose shall consist of two thirds of the whole number of senators, and a majority of the whole number shall be necessary to a choice. But no person constitutionally ineligible to the office of President shall be eligible to that of Vice President of the United States.

ARTICLE XIII[2]. SLAVERY ABOLISHED

SECTION 1

Neither slavery nor involuntary servitude, except as a punishment for crime whereof the party shall have been duly convicted, shall exist within the United States, or any place subject to their jurisdiction.

SECTION 2

Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

ARTICLE XIV[3]. PROTECTION OF FREEDMEN, ETC.

SECTION 1

Definition of citizen; states shall not abridge privileges of citizens. All persons born or naturalized in the United States, and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens of the United States and of the State wherein they reside. No State shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States; nor shall any State deprive any person of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws.

[1] Adopted in 1804. [2] Adopted in 1865. [3] Adopted in 1868.

SECTION 2

Apportionment of representatives. Representatives shall be apportioned among the several States according to their respective numbers, counting the whole number of persons in each State, excluding Indians not taxed. But when the right to vote at any election for the choice of electors for President and Vice President of the United States, representatives in Congress, the executive and judicial officers of a State, or the members of the legislature thereof, is denied to any of the male inhabitants of such State, being twenty-one years of age, and citizens of the United States, or in any way abridged, except for participation in rebellion, or other crime, the basis of representation therein shall be reduced in the proportion which the number of such male citizens shall bear to the whole number of male citizens twenty-one years of age in such State.

SECTION 3

Loss of political privileges. No person shall be a senator or representative in Congress, or elector of President and Vice President, or hold any office, civil or military, under the United States, or under any State, who, having previously taken an oath, as a member of Congress, or as an officer of the United States, or as a member of any State legislature, or as an executive or judicial officer of any State, to support the Constitution of the United States, shall have engaged in insurrection or rebellion against the same, or given aid or comfort to the enemies thereof. But Congress may by a vote of two thirds of each House, remove such disability.

SECTION 4

Public debts. The validity of the public debt of the United States, authorized by law, including debts incurred for payment of pensions and bounties for services in suppressing insurrection or rebellion, shall not be questioned. But neither the United States nor any State shall assume or pay any debt or obligation incurred in aid of insurrection or rebellion against the United States, or any claim for the loss or emancipation of any slave; but all such debts, obligations and claims shall be held illegal and void.

SECTION 5

The Congress shall have power to enforce, by appropriate legislation, the provisions of this article.

ARTICLE XV[1]. NEGRO SUFFRAGE

SECTION 1

The right of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or by any State on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude.

SECTION 2

The Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

ARTICLE XVI[2]. INCOME TAXES

The Congress shall have power to lay and collect taxes on incomes, from whatever source derived, without apportionment among the several States, and without regard to any census or enumeration.

[1] Adopted in 1870.

[2] Adopted in 1913.

ARTICLE XVII[1]. ELECTION OF SENATORS

Amendment to Article 1, Section 3, Clauses 1 and 2. The Senate of the United States shall be composed of two senators from each State, elected by the people thereof, for six years; and each senator shall have one vote. The electors in each State shall have the qualifications requisite for electors of the most numerous branch of the State legislatures.

When vacancies happen in the representation of any State in the Senate, the executive authority of such State shall issue writs of election to fill such vacancies: *Provided*, That the legislature of any State may empower the executive thereof to make temporary appointments until the people fill the vacancies by election as the legislature may direct.

This amendment shall not be so construed as to affect the election or term of any senator chosen before it becomes valid as part of the Constitution.

ARTICLE XVIII[2]. PROHIBITION

SECTION 1

After one year from the ratification of this article the manufacture, sale, or transportation of intoxicating liquors within, the importation thereof into, or the exportation thereof from the United States and all territory subject to the jurisdiction thereof for beverage purposes is hereby prohibited.

SECTION 2

The Congress and the several States shall have concurrent power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

SECTION 3

This article shall be inoperative unless it shall have been ratified as an amendment to the Constitution by the legislatures of the several States, as provided in the Constitution, within seven years from the date of the submission hereof to the States by the Congress.

ARTICLE XIX[3]. WOMAN SUFFRAGE

SECTION 1

The right of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or by any State on account of sex.

SECTION 2

Congress shall have power, by appropriate legislation, to enforce the provisions of this article.

[1] Adopted in 1913. [2] Adopted in 1919, effective in 1920. [3] Adopted in 1920.

THE TWENTY MOST IMPORTANT DATES IN AMERICAN HISTORY

Forty-nine members of the American Historical Association, including some of the most eminent historians in the United States, replied to a questionnaire asking them to rank in order the twenty most important dates in American history. The following table gives these dates arranged according to the number of votes which they received. This list serves a useful purpose in attracting attention to these dates. We may become sufficiently interested in them to compare their importance and to debate the question why some were preferred to others. As the list was selected before the United States entered the World War, we have the problem of assigning proper rank to the date 1917.

Rank[1]	Date	Rank	Date
1.....	1776	11.....	1812
2.....	1492	12.....	1765
3.....	1607	13.....	1783
4.....	1789	14.....	1865 (April 14)
5.....	1620	15.....	1850
6.....	1803	16.....	1854
7.....	1861 (April 14)	17.....	1775
8.....	1787	18.....	1781
9.....	1863 (January 1)	19.....	1823
10.....	1820	20.....	1846

[1] Reprinted by permission of *School and Home Education.*

THE FORTY-EIGHT STATES

		ADMISSION	PREVIOUS STATUS	CENSUS OF 1920	NUMBER OF REPRESENTATIVES 1913–1927
22	Alabama	Dec. 14, 1819	Territory	2,348,174	10
48	Arizona	Feb. 14, 1912	Territory	334,162	1
25	Arkansas	June 15, 1836	Territory	1,752,204	7
31	California	Sept. 9, 1850	Unorganized territory	3,426,861	11
38	Colorado	Aug. 1, 1876	Territory	939,629	4
5	Connecticut	.....	Original state	1,380,631	5
1	Delaware	.....	Original state	223,003	1
27	Florida	March 3, 1845	Territory	968,470	4
4	Georgia	.....	Original state	2,895,832	12
43	Idaho	July 3, 1890	Territory	431,866	2
21	Illinois	Dec. 3, 1818	Part of Illinois Territory	6,485,280	27
19	Indiana	Dec. 11, 1816	Indiana Territory and part of Michigan Territory	2,930,390	13
29	Iowa	Dec. 28, 1846	Part of Iowa Territory	2,404,021	11
34	Kansas	Jan. 29, 1861	Part of Kansas Territory	1,769,257	8
15	Kentucky	June 1, 1792	Part of Virginia	2,416,630	11
18	Louisiana	April 30, 1812	Territory of Orleans	1,798,509	8
23	Maine	March 15, 1820	Part of Massachusetts	768,014	4
7	Maryland	.....	Original state	1,449,661	6
6	Massachusetts	.....	Original state	3,852,356	16
26	Michigan	June 26, 1837	Part of Michigan Territory	3,668,412	13
32	Minnesota	May 11, 1858	Part of Minnesota Territory	2,387,125	10
20	Mississippi	Dec. 10, 1817	Territory	1,790,618	8
24	Missouri	Aug. 10, 1821	Part of Missouri Territory	3,404,055	16
41	Montana	Nov. 8, 1889	Territory	548,889	2
37	Nebraska	March 1, 1867	Territory	1 296,372	6
36	Nevada	Oct. 31, 1864	Territory	77,407	1
9	New Hampshire	.....	Original state	443,083	2
3	New Jersey	.....	Original state	3,155,900	12
47	New Mexico	Jan. 6, 1912	Territory	360,350	1
11	New York	.....	Original state	10,385,227	43
12	North Carolina	.....	Original state	2,559,123	10
39	North Dakota	Nov. 2, 1889	Part of Dakota Territory	646,872	3
17	Ohio	Feb. 19, 1803	Part of Northwest Territory	5,759,394	22
46	Oklahoma	Nov. 16, 1907	Indian Territory and Oklahoma Territory	2,028,283	8
33	Oregon	Feb. 14, 1859	Part of Oregon Territory	783,389	3
2	Pennsylvania	.....	Original state	8,720,017	36
13	Rhode Island	.....	Original state	604,397	3
8	South Carolina	.....	Original state	1,683,724	7
40	South Dakota	Nov. 2, 1889	Part of Dakota Territory	636,547	3
16	Tennessee	June 1, 1796	Territory South of the Ohio	2,337,885	10
28	Texas	Dec. 29, 1845	Independent state	4,663,228	18
45	Utah	Jan. 4, 1896	Territory	449,396	2
14	Vermont	March 4, 1791	Semi-independent state	352,428	2
10	Virginia	.....	Original state	2,309,187	10
42	Washington	Nov. 11, 1889	Territory	1,356,621	5
35	West Virginia	June 19, 1863	Part of Virginia	1,463 701	6
30	Wisconsin	May 29, 1848	Part of Wisconsin Territory	2,632 067	11
44	Wyoming	July 10, 1890	Territory	194,402	1

NO.	PRESIDENT	STATE	BORN	DIED	TERM OF OFFICE	ELECTED BY	VICE PRESIDENT	STATE
1	George Washington	Virginia	1732	1799	Two terms; 1789–1797	Whole people	John Adams	Massachusetts
2	John Adams	Massachusetts	1735	1826	One term; 1797–1801	Federalists	Thomas Jefferson	Virginia
3	Thomas Jefferson	Virginia	1743	1826	Two terms; 1801–1809	House of Rep. Republicans	Aaron Burr George Clinton	New York New York
4	James Madison	Virginia	1751	1836	Two terms; 1809–1817	Republicans	George Clinton Elbridge Gerry	New York Massachusetts
5	James Monroe	Virginia	1758	1831	Two terms; 1817–1825	Republicans	Daniel D. Tompkins	New York
6	John Quincy Adams	Massachusetts	1767	1848	One term; 1825–1829	House of Rep.	John C. Calhoun	South Carolina
7	Andrew Jackson	Tennessee	1767	1845	Two terms; 1829–1837	Democrats	John C. Calhoun Martin Van Buren	South Carolina New York
8	Martin Van Buren	New York	1782	1862	One term; 1837–1841	Democrats	Richard M. Johnson	Kentucky
9	William H. Harrison	Ohio	1773	1841	One month; 1841	Whigs	John Tyler	Virginia
10	John Tyler	Virginia	1790	1862	3 yrs. and 11 mos.; 1841–1845	Whigs		
11	James K. Polk	Tennessee	1795	1849	One term; 1845–1849	Democrats	George M. Dallas	Pennsylvania
12	Zachary Taylor	Louisiana	1784	1850	1 yr. and 4 mos.; 1849–1850	Whigs	Millard Fillmore	New York
13	Millard Fillmore	New York	1800	1874	2 yrs. and 8 mos.; 1850–1853	Whigs		
14	Franklin Pierce	N. Hampshire	1804	1869	One term; 1853–1857	Democrats	William R. King	Alabama
15	James Buchanan	Pennsylvania	1791	1868	One term; 1857–1861	Democrats	John C. Breckinridge	Kentucky
16	Abraham Lincoln	Illinois	1809	1865	One term and 1 mo.; 1861–1865	Republicans	Hannibal Hamlin Andrew Johnson	Maine Tennessee
17	Andrew Johnson	Tennessee	1808	1875	3 yrs. and 11 mos.; 1865–1869	Republicans		
18	Ulysses S. Grant	Illinois	1822	1885	Two terms; 1869–1877	Republicans	Schuyler Colfax Henry Wilson	Indiana Massachusetts
19	Rutherford B. Hayes	Ohio	1822	1893	One term; 1877–1881	Republicans	William A. Wheeler	New York
20	James A. Garfield	Ohio	1831	1881	6 months and 15 days; 1881	Republicans	Chester A. Arthur	New York
21	Chester A. Arthur	New York	1830	1886	3 yrs. 5 mos. 15 das.; 1881–85	Republicans		
22	Grover Cleveland	New York	1837	1908	First term; 1885–1889	Democrats	Thomas A. Hendricks	Indiana
23	Benjamin Harrison	Indiana	1833	1901	One term; 1889–1893	Republicans	Levi P. Morton	New York
24	Grover Cleveland	New York	1837	1908	Second term; 1893–1897	Democrats	Adlai E. Stevenson	Illinois
25	William McKinley	Ohio	1843	1901	One term and 6 mos.; 1897–1901	Republicans	Garret A. Hobart Theodore Roosevelt	New Jersey New York
26	Theodore Roosevelt	New York	1858	1919	One term and 3½ yrs.; 1901–09.	Republicans	Charles W. Fairbanks	Indiana
27	William H. Taft	Ohio	1857	.....	One term; 1909–1913	Republicans	James S. Sherman	New York
28	Woodrow Wilson	New Jersey	1856	1924	Two terms; 1913–1921	Democrats	Thomas R. Marshall	Indiana
29	Warren G. Harding	Ohio	1865	1923	2 yrs. and 5 mos.; 1921–1923	Republicans	Calvin Coolidge	Massachusetts
30	Calvin Coolidge	Massachusetts	1872	.....	1923	Republicans	Charles G. Dawes	Illinois

INDEX

Abolitionists, 336
Acadians, 136, 137
Adams, John, activity in Revolution, 170, 188, 210
  peace commissioner, 210
  President, 238-242, 244, 246
  Vice President, 228
  youth of, 155, 144
Adams, John Quincy, character and early career, 273-274
  helps frame the Monroe Doctrine, 274, 277
  President, 272, 274, 313
  Secretary of State, 274
Adams, Samuel, 175-181
Addams, Jane, 476
Agricultural colleges, 471
Airships, 506, 523, 524
Alabama, 279, 370
Alabama (cruiser), 382, 390
  claims, 417, 419
Alamo, 326
Alaska, 276, 277, 332, 410
Albany, N. Y., 109, 464
Albany Plan of Union, 134
Alden, John, 66, 68
Alfred the Great, 199
Algerian pirates, 233
Algonquins, 123, 124
Alien and Sedition Acts, 240, 241
Allegheny Mts., 287, 290, 292
Allen, Ethan, 183
Almanacs, 157
America,
  colonization of, 15-34, 49-121
  debt to the past, 1
  discovery of, 20
  exploration of, 15-34, 38-41, 108, 123-127
  See also United States
American Federation of Labor, 468, 469, 498
Americanism, ideals of, 62, 75, 76, 87, 94, 121, 161, 177, 187, 219, 440, 441, 503, 513, 514, 531-533
  in diplomacy, 443
  of Carolina colony, 102
  of frontier, 456, 457
  of Andrew Jackson, 313, 314
  of Thomas Jefferson, 246
  of Abraham Lincoln, 177, 337, 370, 375, 398, 407
  of Maryland colony, 98-100
  of Pennsylvania colony, 120, 121
  of Pilgrims, 65, 74-76
  of Puritans, 82, 154, 273
  of Theodore Roosevelt, 475, 476, 480-482
  of Virginia colony, 62
  of George Washington, 198, 210, 211, 229, 230, 231, 340, 532
  of Roger Williams, 87
  See also Ideals, Education, Religion, Social Aims
American literature, 157, 298, 299, 366, 367
American System, 271, 272
Anæsthetics, 312, 361, 362
Anderson, Robert, 371
André, John, 207
Andros Edmund, 92
Anglo-Saxons, 8, 9
Antietam, 385, 395
Appomattox, 405
Arabs, 10, 11
Arbitration, 417, 418, 433
Argonne Forest, 512, 513
Arizona, 495
Arkansas, 329, 372, 411
Armada, 31, 32
Armament Conference, 518, 528
Armistice Day, 516
Armor, Spanish, 35
Army, in Civil War, 372, 379-381, 383, 384, 389, 399-405
  in Revolutionary War, 177, 180-182, 186, 190-198, 204-210
  in Spanish War, 436, 438-440
  in War of 1812, 262, 264-266
  in World War, 503, 504, 509-516
Arnold, Benedict, 185, 194, 207
Arthur, Chester A., 423, 427, 428
Asbury, Francis, 295
Assembly, colonial, 161, 162
Astor, John Jacob, 253
Astoria, 253, 267
Athens, flour mill in, 464
Atlanta, 381, 404, 405
Austria-Hungary, 500, 501
Automobile, 521, 522
Aztecs, 24, 28

Bacon, Nathaniel, 58
Balboa, 23
Baltimore, 101, 264, 292
Baltimore, Lords, 96-101
Bananas, 485, 492
Bank of United States, 231, 238, 239, 325
Baptists, 295, 364
Barbary pirates, 253, 254, 256
Barney, Joshua, 264
Barry, John, 199
Barter, 142, 143
Belgium, 501, 508
Bell, Alexander Graham, 466-467
Belleau Wood, 511
Bennington, battle of, 194
Berkeley, Sir William, 57, 58
Bessemer, Henry, 461
Bible, 1
  influence on Lincoln, 342
  influence on the Pilgrims and Puritans, 76, 86, 87, 92, 93
Bicycles, 534
Big Stick policy, 490
Bird Woman, 251
Birmingham, Alabama, 465
Black Code, 411
Blaine, James G., 425
Blucher, General, 270
Bon Homme Richard (ship), 199
Boone, Daniel, 201, 202, 282
Boonesboro, 201
Border states, 378, 380
Boston, capital of New England, 91
  emigration from, 85, 86
  facsimiles from early newspapers, 149, 158

Boston—*Continued*
founded, 80, 82
high school for girls, 298
in Revolution, 171-179, 181, 182, 185, 186
resists Great Britain's taxation, 168, 172-176
Boston Massacre, 171
Boston Tea Party, 173, 174, 178
Bounty jumper, 383
Bow and arrows, 48
Boxers, 442
Boys, amusements of, 151, 152, 296
bound out, 147, 150, 293
education of, 155, 156, 158, 298, 363, 471
in factories, 307
life on pioneer farm, 292, 293
Braddock, General, 135
Bradford, William, 65, 67, 72, 73, 76
Bragg, Braxton, 402
Brazil, 22, 475, 483
Breeds Hill, 182
Brewster, William, 64, 66, 114
Brooklyn, 110, 190
Brown, John, 346
Bryan, W. J., 393, 429-431, 443
Bryant, William Cullen, 299
Buchanan, James, 338, 344
Budget, 518
Buffalo (city), 289, 464
Buffalo Bill, 448
Buffaloes, 26, 447, 448, 452
Bull Run, battles, 379, 385
Bunker Hill, battle of, 182, 183
Bunyan, John, 157, 158
Burgesses, House of, 57, 62
chair of speaker of, 62
Burgoyne, General, 192, 193
Burke, Edmund, 177
Burnside, A. E., 385, 386
Burr, Aaron, 244
Butler, B. F., 389

Cabinet, 230
Cabot, John, 28, 112
Cahokia, 201, 203
Calhoun, John C., 261, 317
California, discovery of gold in, 352, 353
in Compromise of 1850, 338, 339, 344
in Mexican War, 330, 331
Spanish influence, 27
Camden, battle of, 198
Camouflage, 502
Canada, a French colony, 33-34, 123-129
ceded to Great Britain, 138
in Revolutionary War, 184
in War of 1812, 261, 262, 267
peace with, 269, 528
proposed reciprocity, 494
refuge for loyalists, 186
refuge for slaves, 341
treaties over boundaries, 275, 325, 333
Canals, 288-201
Candlestick, 281
Canterbury, 8
Cantigny, 509
Canton, Ohio, 444
Capitals of U. S., 228, 233, 246
Caribbean zone, 485, 486
Carlyle, Thomas, 234
Carnegie, Andrew, 464
Carolinas, 101-104
Carpetbag, 310
Carpetbaggers, 414
Cartier, Jacques, 33
Cartwright, Edmund, 302
Castle of Middle Ages, 13
Catholics, Roman, influence in sixteenth century, 29
in Maryland, 99, 100, 103, 116
in New France, 129-131, 295
Cavaliers, 80, 82, 83
Centennial Exposition, 466, 472
Central Pacific Railroad, 450, 451
Champlain, Samuel de, 123, 124
attacking Indians, 125
Chancellorsville, Va., 386
Charles I, 86, 96, 101
execution of, 80, 92, 102
persecution by, 79, 81
Charles II, made king, 80, 101
persecution by, 116
relation to colonies, 87, 92, 102, 112, 114
Charleston, S. C., 104, 207, 397
Charlestown, Mass., 181
Charters, 50
Carolina, 101
Georgia, 104, 105
Maryland, 96, 97
Massachusetts Bay, 83, 92
New York, 114
Pennsylvania, 118, 119
Virginia, 50, 51, 57
Chase, Salmon P., 375
Château-Thierry, 510
Chattanooga, in Civil War, 381, 388, 402, 403, 404
Chaucer, Geoffrey, 8
Cherokee Indians, 318
Cherry Valley, 198
Chicago, 393, 452, 464, 476
early views, 271, 359
Chickamauga, 402, 403
Child labor, 307, 531
Children, among the Pilgrims, 65, 67, 68, 75
amusements of (colonial), 151, 152
protection of, 530, 531
work of, 147, 307, 531
Chile, 432
China, 358, 359, 442, 443, 519
Christianity, *see* Religion
Church of England (Episcopal Church), in Virginia, 60
in Maryland, 100
relations of Puritans to, 64, 78-80, 83, 84, 92
relations of Quakers to, 117
Cincinnati, 283, 285, 292, 309
Cities, 154, 307, 468
Civil service, 425-429, 474
Civil Service Commission, 428
Civil War, 370-408
army in, 372, 379-381, 383-389, 399-405
influence of railroads on, 392, 393
navy in, 381-384, 387-389, 402, 404
plan of, 380-383
raising money for, 393, 394
slavery a cause of, 293, 303, 344, 374
results of, 408
Claiborne, William, 97
Clark, George Rogers, 202-205, 217, 333
march to Vincennes, illustration facing 204
Class legislation, 76, 525, 526
Clay, Henry, candidate for President, 319, 324, 327
death of, 341
favors American System, 272
favors compromise, 280, 317, 318, 338
favors War of 1812, 259, 261
Clayton Bill, 497, 498
Clergy, New England, 93
Clermont (steamboat) 288

Cleveland, Grover, for civil service reform, 428
for low tariff, 425
for sound money, 429
governor of New York, 424
President, 424, 425, 428-433
Venezuela question, 432, 433
Climate, effect of, on history, 36, 37
Clinton, De Witt, 288
Clipper ships, 357, 358
Code Napoléon, 248
Cody, W. F., 448
Coffee, 483
Coffin, Levi, 342
Cohoes, N. Y., 306
Colombia, 486, 487
Colonies (American), 49-122, 141-160
causes of separation from Great Britain, 161-178
charters of, *see* Charters
life in, 141-158
proprietary, 97, 101, 104, 161
royal, 57, 106, 115, 161
self-government in, 57, 61, 75, 76, 91, 161
Colorado, 353, 453
Columbia River, 332
Columbia (ship), 253
Columbus, Christopher, 15, 18-22, 25, 28
Committees of Correspondence, 176
Committees of Safety, 177
Communism, Jamestown experiment in, 56
Plymouth starvation from, 73, 74
Compromise of 1850, 338, 393
Concord, battle of, 179, 180
Confederate States, 370, 371, 374
flag of, 371
reconstruction of, 410-415, 421
Confederation of States, 188, 189, 215-220, 224
Congregational Church, 74, 84, 92
Congress, Continental, 175, 183
Congress of the Confederation, 228
Congress of United States, 224, 228
Connecticut, 85-87, 188
refuses vote to negroes, 412
Western Reserve, 286
Conscription, 383, 503
Conservation of natural resources, 479-482
Constantinople, 12, 16, 18
Constitutional Convention, 220-222
Constitution of United States, framed, 220-225
text of, xi; amendments, 225, 412, 521, xix.
Constitution (ship), 264
Continental Congress (first), 175; (second), 183
Contraband, 236
Cooke, Jay, 394
Coolidge, Calvin, 518
Cooper, James Fenimore, 136, 299
Corinth, Miss., 387, 388
Corn, 53, 54, 68, 69, 141
Cornwallis, Lord, 207, 209, 210
Coronado, Francisco, 25, 26
Cortes, Hernando, 24
Cotton, 283, 293, 294, 374
Cotton gin, 278, 293, 303, 304
Covenanters, 116
Cowboys, 452, 458
Cowpens, 208
Creek Indians, 265, 312
Cromwell, Oliver, 80, 92, 102
Crow Dog, 46, 47
Crown Point, 183, 186, 193
Crusades, 10, 11
Cuba, 21, 138
industry and trade, 485
Cuba—*Continued*
relations to U. S., 435, 440, 441, 487, 493
war with Spain, 419, 434-439
Cumberland Gap, 288
Cumberland Road, 287, 288
Custer, George A., 454, 455

Dakota Territory, 452, 453, 474
Danbury hat workers, 498
Dartmouth College, 296
Davis, Jefferson, 343, 370, 371, 372, 377
Dawes Bill, 455
Dearborn, Fort, 271
Debt, imprisonment for, 294, 295
Declaration of Independence, 186-188, 245, 335, 336
text of, vii
Deerfield massacre, 131
Defoe, Daniel, 158
Delaware, 118, 389
Delaware River, 191
Democracy, early aims of, 62, 74-76, 80, 161, 187
extension of, 177, 187, 239, 412, 503, 521
Jacksonian, 314
Jeffersonian, 246
twentieth-century, 526, 527
See also Americanism, Ideals, Social Aims
Democratic party, 311, 323
Denmark, 491
Detroit, 201, 262, 263
Deutschland (submarine), 507
Dewey, George, 436, 490
Dickens, Charles, 349, 350
Discovery of America, 20
Distinguished service cross and medal, 520
District of Columbia, 233
Divine right of kings, 78, 80, 92
Dix, Dorothea, 364, 365
Donelson, Ft., 387
Dongan, Thomas, 114
Douglas, Stephen A., 341, 342, 343, 345, 346
Drake, Francis, 30, 31, 32
Dred Scott decision, 345
Duquesne, Ft., 135, 137
Dutch, the, 108-113
cottage of, 113
Dwight, Margaret, 286

East India Company, 173, 174
Education, colonial, 154-156
in common schools, 296, 363
in early United States, 296-298
mid-nineteenth-century, 363, 364
of girls and women, 156, 157, 298, 363, 472
progress in, 471, 472
twentieth-century social, 526-533
Egyptians, our debt to, 1
El Caney, 438
Electricity, 466
Eliot, C. W., 488
Eliot, John, 89
Elizabeth, Queen, 29, 30, 31, 78
Emancipation Proclamation, 398, 399
Embargo Act, 257, 267, 284, 308
Emerson, Ralph Waldo, 180, 363, 367
England, attempts to colonize in sixteenth century, 32, 33
became Protestant, 29
claim to share in New World, 28
criminal laws of, 49
part of Great Britain, 131
See also Great Britain
Enumerated articles, 162
Episcopal Church, *see* Church of England

Ericsson, John, 384
Erie Canal, 289, 290
Esch-Cummins Act, 528
Evangeline, 137

Factories (early), 306-308, *see also* Industrial Revolution
Fallen Timber, 233
Farming, in colonies, 141
in the North, 291-293
in the South, 293, 294
inventions for, 353-355
Farm Loans, 499
Farragut, David G., 388, 389, 404
Federalist, 221
Federalist party, 238, 239, 244, 272, 323
Federal Reserve Act, 498, 499
Federal Reserve Banks, 498, 499
Federal Trade Commission Act, 497
Field, Cyrus W., 466
Fifty-Niners, 353
Filipinos, 439
Fillmore, Millard, 337
Fireplaces, 144, 145
Fish, Hamilton, 418
Fitch, John, 288
Flag of U. S., illustration facing 279
Florida, admission as state, 329
bought from Spain, 275
British colony, 138
discovery of, 25
Huguenots in, 34
Jackson's march into, 274, 313
secession, 370
Spanish colony, 27, 138, 210, 275
Flying machine, 153
Foch, Ferdinand, 510
Food and Drugs Act, 479
Fordney-McCumber tariff, 497
Ford's Theater, 406
Forest lands (public), 481
Forrest, Nathan B., 373
Forty-Niners, 338, 352, 362
France, ally of United States, 195, 502
basis of claim in the New World, 33, 38-41
colonies of, 123, 127
during Civil War, 397, 398
fights for American possessions, 123-140
how she treated the Indians, 130
in Mexico, 409
in World War, 501, 508–511
paternal government of, 128, 129
trouble with, 239, 240
Franklin, Benjamin, colonial writer, 157, 158
education of, 154, 157
in Constitutional Convention, 220, 222
minister to France, 195, 196
on Benedict Arnold, 207
peace commissioner at end of Revolution, 210
proposes Albany Plan of Union, 134
Fredericksburg, Va., 386
Freedmen's Bureau, 413
Freeport (Lincoln-Douglas debate), 345
Frémont, John C., 330, 344
French and Indian War, 135-139
French Revolution, 234, 235, 247
Frontier, clergy on the, 364
effect of, 313, 456, 457
end of existence of (1890), 452
in 1860, 445
influence survives in public school, 457
Presidents trained by, 456, 474
Fugitive Slave Law, 339-341
Fulton, Robert, 288

Fur trade, colonial, 37, 72, 147
French engage in, 38
Indians and, 72, 109, 141, 143

Gage, General, 175, 176, 179
Gallatin, Albert, 246
Gama, Vasco da, 18
Garfield, James A., 423, 427
Garrison, William Lloyd, 336
Gas masks, 507, 514
Gasoline engine, 521, 522
Gates, Horatio, 194, 198
Genêt, Edmond, 235
Geneva, 395, 417
George III, 169, 174, 186
Georgia, colony of, 104-106
defies U. S. Supreme Court, 318
secession and reconstruction, 370, 414, 416
Sherman's march through, 404, 405
Germans, 5
Germany, and Monroe Doctrine, 490
emperor of, awards San Juan Islands to U. S., 418
immigration from, 105, 120, 360, 378
in World War, 501-517
Gettysburg, 399-401
Gettysburg Address, 342, 401
Ghent, treaty of, 267
Gibault, Pierre, 203
Gilbert, Humphrey, 32
Girls, bound out, 147, 151
early colleges for, 363, 472
early high school for, 298
in factories, 306, 307
learned varied household arts, 147
unequal education of, 156, 157, 298, 363
work and play of colonial, 146, 147, 151
Gladstone, Wm. E., on the Confederacy, 389
Goethals, G. W., 489
Gold, Fifty-Niners and, 353
Forty-Niners and, 338, 352, 362
money standard, 429, 431
Spain's quest for, 24-28, 31
Virginia colony and, 50, 53
Golden age, 359
Gold standard, 429-431
Gompers, Samuel, 498
Goodyear, Charles, 357
Gorgas, W. W., 488
Gothic cathedrals, 11
Grady, H. W., 465
Grant, Ulysses S., in Civil War, 376, 377, 387, 388, 401-405
in Mexican War, 330
President, 416-420, 426
qualities of, 376, 377, 420
strove for peace, 417, 419
Gray, Robert, 253
Great Britain, 131, 236, 278, 331, 332, 336
and Venezuelan boundary, 432, 433
attitude during Spanish-American War, 436
causes of separation from, 161-178
in French and Indian War, 123-140
in relation to the Civil War, 396, 397, 398, 416, 418
Panama Canal treaty with, 489
treaties of peace with, 210, 267
War of 1812 with, 261-270
See also England
Greeks, 2, 355
Greenbacks, 393, 429
Greene, Nathanael, 208, 209
Guadalupe Hidalgo, treaty of, 331
Guam, 439

Guilford Court House, 209
Guthrie, Okla., 456

Haiti, 21, 22, 24, 483, 490
Hale, Nathan, 190
Half Moon, picture of, 108
Halleck, H. W., 388
Hamilton, Alexander, in Constitutional Convention, 220, 221
  favors Constitution in New York, 225, 225
  Secretary of the Treasury, 230-233
Hamilton, Col. Henry, 204
Hampton Roads, 383
Hancock, John, 177, 179, 180, 188
Harding, Warren G., 518
Harpers Ferry, Va., 346
Harrisburg, 350, 399
Harrison, Benjamin, 425, 431
Harrison, William Henry, 261, 263, 323-325
Harrodsburg, 201
Hartford, 86
Hartford Convention, 267
Harvard College, 154, 155, 273, 297, 317, 472, 474, 488
Hawaiian Islands, 441, 442
Hawkins, John, 30, 32, 33
Hawthorne, Nathaniel, 337, 338
Hay, John, 443
Hayes, Rutherford B., aids civil service reform, 426, 427, 428
  ends Reconstruction, 421
  President, 421, 423, 426-429
Hayne, Robert, 316
Health, 362, 363, 527, 530
Hebrews, our debt to, 1
Henry, Ft., 387
Henry, Patrick, 62, 169, 177, 203, 225
Henry, the Navigator, 18
Hepburn Act, 478
Herkimer, General, 193
Hessians, 186, 191
High schools, 297, 298
Hoe, Richard, 357
Holland, asylum for Pilgrims, 64-66
  founds New Netherland, 108-110
  freedom of press in, 113, 114
  influence of, 113, 114, 320
  lends money to United States, 217, 232
  toleration in, 64, 113
Holmes, Oliver Wendell, 367
Holy Alliance, 276
Home, influence of, among Pilgrims, 75
  in America, 7, 306, 307
  in Virginia colony, 56
Homespun, 145, 146, 172
  decline of, 306-309
  in Civil War, 391
Homestead Act, 448
Hooker, Joseph, 386, 399
Hooker, Thomas, 85, 86
Hoover, Herbert, 505
Horseshoe Bend, 313
Hospital Day, 366
Houston, Sam, 327
Howe, Elias, 356
Howe, Sir William, 185, 190, 193
Hubbard, Mabel, 466, 467
Hudson, Henry, 108, 124
Hughes, Charles E., 496, 518
Huguenots, driven from France, 129, 131
  in Carolinas, 102, 103, 129
  in Florida, 34
  in Middle Colonies, 116, 129
Hull, Gen. William, 262, 263
Humane Society, 295

Idaho, 333, 454
Ideals, of Americanism, 75, 76, 87, 121, 161, 177, 187, 219, 503, 531-533
  in Cuba, 441
  in the World War, 503, 504, 505, 517
  of American writers, 157, 367, 368
  of Declaration of Independence, 187
  of government, 75, 76, 121, 161, 177, 187, 219, 475, 503
  of social justice, 76, 121, 364-366, 471, 476, 479, 525, 530, 531
  of the home, 7, 75, 145, 306, 307
  of the Maryland colony, 98, 100
  of the missionaries, 89, 130, 295, 364
  of the Pilgrims, 65, 74, 76
  of the Puritans, 94
  of the Quakers, 119, 121
  of the Rhode Island colony, 87
  of the twentieth century, 475, 476, 526, 530, 531
  of the Virginia colony, 62, 63
  See also Americanism, Education, Religion, Women
Illinois, 279, 285, 291, 296
Illiteracy, 527, 529
Immigrants entering New York Bay, illustration facing 529
Immigration, causes of (1830 to 1860), 360
  comparatively small (1789 to 1829), 284, 360
  helped U. S. win first place in manufactures, 464, 465
  how it increased population, 464, 529
  illiteracy from, 529
  limitation of, 529
  of indentured servants, 58, 59, 148-151
  physical test for, 529
  whence it came, 105, 120, 360, 361, 378, 465
Implied powers, 238, 242
Impressment of sailors, 255-257, 269, 271
Incas, 25, 28
Income tax (sixteenth amendment), 521
Indentured servants, 58, 59, 148-151
Independence, Mo., 332
Independence Hall, 181 (see Frontispiece)
Indiana, 279, 295, 298
Indians, attempts to convert, 89, 130
  buffalo dance of, 45
  characteristics of, 41, 44, 46, 47
  dwellings of, 42
  food of, 42, 43
  how they helped the settlers, 71, 72, 99
  Iroquois, 42, 109, 123-125, 136, 198
  moral training and religion of, 45-47
  move West, 318, 454
  peace pipe of, 70
  picture writing of, 44
  steps toward civilizing, 455
  wars with, 89-91, 166, 198, 202, 204, 233, 261, 312, 454, 455
  why they interest the young, 43, 44
Industrial Revolution, 301-310, 459-473 (the new)
  cheap steel an aid to, 460-469
  factories, 304-307, 462-465
  gives United States first place, 462
  immigration in, 464, 465
  inventions in, 302-304, 463
  large scale production in, 464
  machinery in, 463
  natural resources in, 37, 462, 463
  used child labor, 307
Inflation, 191, 320, 393-395, 430
Interstate Commerce Commission, 471, 478
Intolerable Acts, 174

Inventions, before the steam engine, 282, 301
cause industrial revolution, 301-304
cotton gin, 303, 304
electric light, 466
for communication, 267, 355, 356, 466, 467, 522
for farm, 353-355
for travel, 288, 348, 349, 466, 506, 521, 524
hardening rubber, 357
increase in patents for, 463
in large production, 463, 464
sewing machine, 356
steel making, 460, 461, 463
Iowa, 326, 364
Ireland, 360
Iron, 37, 460-463
Iroquois Indians, 42, 109, 123-125, 136, 198
Irving, Washington, 110, 111, 298, 299
Italy, 502

Jackson, Andrew, early life, 311-313
in War of 1812, 265, 266
march into Florida, 274, 313
President, 313, 315, 317-320, 373
Jackson, Dr. C. T., 362
Jackson, "Stonewall," 330, 377, 378, 385, 386
James I, 78, 96
James II, 92, 115, 116
Jamestown (about 1620), 57
Jamestown colony, 52-57
Japan, 358, 365
Jay, John, 210, 229, 236
Jefferson, Thomas, author of Declaration of Independence, 187, 335
democracy of, 246, 335
President, 244-250, 257-258
Secretary of State, 230
Vice President, 238
writes Kentucky Resolutions, 241
Jewish Welfare Board, 504
Johnson, Andrew, 409-416
impeachment of, 415, 416
Johnson, Sir William, 136
Johnston, Albert Sidney, 388
Johnston, Joseph E., 377, 379, 385, 387
Joliet, Louis, 38-41
Jones, John Paul, 199-200

Kansas, 343-345, 452, 453
Kansas City, 445, 452
Kansas-Nebraska Act, 343
Kaskaskia, 201, 203, 204
Kearney, Stephen, 331
Keats, John, 2
Kelly, William, 460
Kendall, Amos, 296
Kentucky, a part of Virginia, 203
admission to Union, 238
early settlements in, 201, 205, 282
trouble with Indians in, 202
Kentucky Resolutions, 241
Key, Francis Scott, 264
King Philip's War, 89
Kings Mountain, 207, 208
Knickerbockers, 110, 111, 474
Knights of Columbus, 504
Knights of Labor, 468
Kosciusko, 196
Ku Klux Klan, 415

Labor, hours of, 307
Labor organizations, 468, 469
Lafayette, Marquis de, 196
Lane, F. K., 475
Lanier, Sidney, 368
LaSalle, 125-127
Latin America, 483-487
needs of, 484
Laud, William, 79, 81
Lazear, Jesse W., 488
Leadville, 452
League of Colonies, 88, 90
League of Nations, 517, 518
Lee, Charles, 196
Lee, Robert E., ability as general, 377, 385, 386, 404
character of, 377, 378
commander of Confederate forces, 385, 386, 399-401, 403-405
Leisler, Jacob, 115
Leon, Ponce de, 25
Lesseps, Ferdinand de, 486
Lewis and Clark expedition, 250-253, 332
Lexington, battle of, 179-181
Leyden, 64, 65
Life, in the colonies, 141-160
in 1789-1829, 282-300
in 1830-1860, 348-368
in the twentieth century, 521-531
in the West, 445-457
Limitation of armament, 518, 528
Lincoln, Abraham, character of, 375, 406, 407
debates with Douglas, 345, 346
democracy of, 177, 337, 407
determined to preserve Union, 370, 372, 373
early life of, 341, 342
Gettysburg address, 401
plan of Reconstruction, 411
President, 347, 370-378, 387, 398, 404, 405, 477
Lincoln-Douglas debates, 345, 346
Lincoln Memorial, 407
Literature, early, 157, 298, 299
golden age of, 366, 367
Locke, John, 102
Lodge, Henry C., 518
London Company, 50, 52, 57
Lone Star Republic, 326
Long, Dr. Crawford, 362
Longfellow, H. W., 66, 77, 137, 366, 367
Long Island, battle of, 190
Lost Battalion, 513
Lost Colony, 32
Louis XIV, 128
Louisburg, 132
Louisiana, 279, 370, 411
Louisiana Purchase, 248-250
Lewis and Clark's exploration of, 250-252
"manifest destiny" to reach Pacific, 333, 334
Napoleon's part in, 249
relations to slavery, 280, 343
states formed from, 250
Louisville, 126, 203
Lowell, Francis C., 306
Lowell, James Russell, 329, 367, 428
Loyalists in Revolution, 196, 197, 206, 207
Lunacy test, 526
Lusitania, 502
Luther, Martin, 29

McClellan, George B., commander of Army of Potomac, 379
contrasted with Grant, 376, 377
in Peninsular Campaign, 384, 385
presidential candidate against Lincoln, 405
relieved of command, 385
McCormick, Cyrus H., 353, 355
MacDonough, Thomas, 263
McDowell, Irvin, 379

McKinley, William, 430, 431, 462, 474
President, during Spanish-American War, 434-439
Madison, James, 220, 221, 241
President, 259-270
Mafia trouble, 432
Magellan, Ferdinand, 22-24
Maine, 36, 88, 267, 279, 280, 325
Malaria, 487, 488
Manassas, 379, 385
Manhattan Island, 109, 113, 114
Manifest Destiny, 333
Manila, 436
Mann, Horace, 363
Manual training, 471
Manufactures, *see* Industrial Revolution
Marconi, W., 522
Marietta, 219
Marne, battles of, 508, 510
Marquette, Jacques, 38-41, 130
Marshall, John, 62, 241, 242, 249
Maryland, 96-101, 385, 389
Mason-Dixon line, 118
Massachusetts, 80, 81, 187, 188, 341, 372
Massachusetts Bay Colony, 80, 81
Massasoit, 69, 70, 71, 72, 90
Maximilian, 409
Mayflower (ship), 66, 68, 76, 345
illustration of, facing 68
Mayflower Compact, 76
Meade, George G., General, 377.
Commander at Gettysburg, 399, 400
Meat Inspection Act, 479
Medicine man, 89
Memphis, 388, 391
Merrimac River, 306
Merrimac (ship), 383, 384
Methodists, 295, 364
Meuse River, 513
Meuse-Argonne Offensive, 511-516
Mexican cession, 331, 332, 339
Mexican War, 329-331, 356
Mexico, 24, 326, 329-333, 503
Michigan, 329
Miles, Nelson A., 439
Militia, 233, 264
Millinery advertisement (1848), 357
Milton, John, 94
Mims, Ft., 312
Minneapolis, 464
Minnesota, 453, 463
Missions, Spanish, 27
Mississippi, 279, 370, 393, 416
Mississippi River, explored by French, 38-41, 126, 127
in Civil War, 387-389, 393, 401, 402
railroads reach (1854), 393
Spain obstructs trade on, 236, 237, 247
Spanish discovery of, 26
Missouri, 279, 280, 389
Missouri Compromise, 279, 343, 345, 423
Missouri River, 250, 332
Mobile Bay, 404
Mohammed, 7
Mohammedanism, 7, 8
Mohawk valley, 287
Molasses Act, 167
Monitor (ship), 384
Monmouth, battle of, 196
Monroe Doctrine, 277, 278
Adams, J. Q., joint author of, 277
applied by Cleveland, 433; by Roosevelt, 490
extension of, 490
French violation of, 409
Monroe, James, 249, 266, President, 272, 277
Montana, 333, 453
Montcalm, General, 137, 138
Monterey, Bay of, 331
Montgomery, Richard, 185
Montgomery, Ala., 372
Moores Creek, battle of, 206
Moral aims, *see* Americanism, Education, Ideals, Religion
Morgan, Daniel, 194, 208
Mormons, 352, 445
Morris, Robert, 191
Morse, Samuel F. B., 355, 356
Morton, W. T. G., 362
Mosquitoes, 488
Mothers' pensions, 531
Moultrie, Col. William, 206
Mount Vernon, 211, 237
Mullins, Priscilla, 66, 68
Murfreesboro, 388

Napoleon I, as lawmaker, 248
close of career, 269-270
in French Revolution, 247, 248
sells Louisiana to United States, 248, 249
wars of, 254-257, 263, 264, 275
Napoleon III, 409
Napoleonic War, 254-256
Narvaez, 26
Nashville, 282, 311, 405
Navigation Acts, 162
Navy, conference on limiting, 518
in Civil War, 381-384, 387-389, 402, 404
in Revolution, 185, 186, 199, 200
in Spanish War, 436-438
in War of 1812, 262-264
in war with Barbary pirates, 254
in World War, 507
purchase of Virgin Islands for, 491
Navy Curtiss No. 4 (N. C. 4), seaplane, 523
Nebraska, 343, 453
Necessity, Ft., 135
Negroes, early slavery, 30, 56, 60, 61, 148
Fugitive Slave Law, 339-341
in Civil War, 374, 391, 398, 414
in Reconstruction period, 410-415
responsibility for slavery of, 335, 336
See also Slavery
Netherlands, *see* Holland
Neutrality Proclamation, 235
Nevada, 446, 453
New Amsterdam, 109, 112
Newark, N. J., 116
Newfoundland, 28, 29, 32
New Hampshire, 88
New Haven colony, 86, 87
New Jersey, 115, 116
New Mexico, acquisition of, 331
admitted as state, 495
Confederates invade, 449
early settlement in, 27
in Compromise of 1850, 339
New Netherland, 108-114
New Orleans, ceded by France to Spain, 138
early newspaper advertisement in, 357
in Civil War, 388, 389
Mafia trouble in, 432
port for river trade, 288, 292
sold to United States, 280, 283, 284
Spain cedes to France, 247
trouble from Spanish ownership of, 236, 237, 247
New Orleans, battle of, 265, 356
Newspapers, 158, 159, 356

New York (city), English name for New Amsterdam, 114
Erie Canal, 289-291
facsimiles from early newspapers of, 142, 148, 153, 159, 255
first capital of U. S., 228
in Revolution, 181, 190, 191, 192, 196, 206, 209, 211
misgovernment, 419
pictures from Hudson-Fulton Celebration, 113, 226
Sanitary Commission fair, 396
variety of population of, 113
New York (colony), 111-115
Nicaragua, 486, 487, 491
Nightingale, Florence, 364-366, 395
Non-Intercourse Act, 257
Normans, 9, 10
Norsemen, 19
North Carolina, 101-103, 187, 206, 372
North Dakota, 453
Northwest Passage, 32, 33
Northwest Territory, 205, 217-219
Nullification, 241, 318, 340, 341
Nullification Ordinance, 317

Oberlin College, 363
Ocean commerce, 357, 358
Oglethorpe, James, 104-106
Ohio, admitted as a state, 279
advertisements, 309
canals in, 291
Cumberland Road to, 288
Margaret Dwight's journey to, 286
Presidents from, 324, 348, 376, 421, 430, 493, 518
resists U. S. Supreme Court, 318
Ohio Company, 133
Ohio River, 203, 282, 288, 292, 387
Ohio valley advertisements (1828), 309
Oklahoma, 455, 456, 495
Olive Branch petition, 183, 186
Olney, Richard, 432
Open Door, 519
Ordinance of 1787, 217–219, 278
Oregon, 453
Oregon (battleship), 437, 486
Oregon Territory, 332, 333; annexation of, 333
Oregon Trail, 332, 333, 352, 447
Oriskany, battle of, 193
Otis, James, 163
Overland stage, 446, 447

Panama, 486-488, 490
Panama Canal, 486-491
lock on the, facing 490
Pan-American Union, 484
Panics (1837), 321; (1873), 420; (1893), 429
Paper money, 191, 192, 393, 394
Parcels post, 495
Parkman, Francis, 333
Parties, *see* Political Parties
Patents, 463
Paterson, N. J., 306
Patriotism, 429, 531-533
Patriots in Revolution, 196-198, 206, 207
Pawtucket, 301, 306
Payne-Aldrich tariff bill, 494
Peace of Paris, 138
Peace pageant, the first, 69-71
Pendleton Act, 428
Penn, William, 116-119, 121
Pennsylvania, 116-122, 372, 385
Pequots, 89, 90
Perry, Oliver H., 262, 263
Pershing, John J., 510
Petersburg, Va., 404, 405
Philadelphia, capital of United States, 233, 246
Constitutional Convention at, 220
Continental Congress meets at, 176, 183, 187
early newspaper facsimiles, 157, 168
founded by Penn, 119
largest colonial city, 154
Sanitary Commission fair, 396
Philippine Islands, discovered by Magellan, 23
government of, 440
taken by British, 138
taken by United States, 436, 439, 440
Phillips, Wendell, 411
Phœnicians, our debt to, 1
Pickett, General, 401
Pierce, Franklin, 337, 338
Pike, Zebulon, 253
Pikes Peak, 253
Pilgrims, 64-76
Pilgrim's Progress, 158, 342
Pitt, William, 137, 166, 177
Pittsburg Landing, 388
Pittsburgh, 201, 282, 285, 288
Pizarro, Francisco, 25
Plains of Abraham, 137
Plymouth colony, 64-76
Plymouth Company, 50
Pocahontas, 54, 55, 251, 336
Poe, Edgar Allan, 367
Poison gas, 507, 519
Political parties, 238, 323
Democratic, 311, 323
Federalist, 238, 239, 244, 272, 323
Progressive, 474, 495
Republican (early), 238, 244, 259, 323
Republican (later), 323, 344
rise of, 238
third, 470
Whig, 323, 325, 327, 337, 344
Polk, James K., 329-334
Polo, Marco, 15, 16, 19
Pontiac, conspiracy of, 166, 167
Pony express, 447, 448
Poor Richard's Almanac, 157
Populists, 470
Portages, 38, 40, 41
Porto Rico, 24, 25, 439, 441
Portugal, 18, 22
Postage (before 1851), 356
Postal savings banks, 494
Post office, 188, 230, 494, 495
Potomac River, 381, 384
Powder horns, 77
Presbyterians, 116
Presidents of United States, xxvi
Priests (French), 129, 130
Princeton, battle of, 191
Princeton College, 221, 285, 297, 496
Progressive party, 474, 495
Prohibition (eighteenth amendment), 521
Protection, 274, 425
Protestants, 29, 64, 103
Public lands, control of (in Northwest), 218, 219
frontier of, 445, 456, 457
gave everybody a chance, 284, 285, 321, 359, 360, 525
given away (after 1862), 448, 455, 456
grants for education, 298
low price of, 285
Roosevelt's conservation of, 479-482
speculation in, 320
worth more than gold mines, 285, 353, 360
Pulaski, 196
Puritan colonies in New England, 78-95

Quakers, character, 117
dislike of war, 134
in New Jersey, 115, 116
in Pennsylvania, 119, 121
persecution of, 84, 116, 117
Quebec, 129, 137
Quebec Act, 176

Radio, 522
Railroads, early, 348, 349
effect in the West, 449
extension to Chicago and Missouri River, 393
first transcontinental finished, 451
influence on Civil War, 392, 393
rapid increase in, 393, 463
regulation of, 471, 478
Railroad Labor Board, 528
Raisin River, battle of, 262
Raleigh, Sir Walter, 32, 33
Randolph, John, 293, 336
Read, T. B., 405
Reading, colonial, 157-159
Reaper (McCormick's), 354, 355
Reconstruction, 410-421
amendments for, 412
congressional plan, 412
difficulty of, 410
presidential plan, 411
termination of, 421, 423
Red Cross, 366, 395, 396, 504
Reformation, 29, 64
Religion, freedom of, 29, 65, 87, 98-99, 100, 103, 105, 113, 116, 120, 130, 136, 218, 225
guidance of, 64-65, 86, 93
Indian, 45-47
inheritance of, 1, 8, 29, 64, 65, 74, 75, 76, 78, 93, 98, 100, 129, 130
in literature, 157, 367, 368
in Ordinance of 1787, 218, 219
in the West, 295, 364
intolerance in, 29, 60, 79, 82-84, 105, 116, 129, 221
missionaries spread, 89, 130, 295, 364
of the Ten Commandments, 1, 76, 364
reason for colonization, 49, 64-65, 79, 81, 85-87, 98, 103, 116, 119
reason for explorations, 18, 28-34, 39
social spirit of, 364, 476, 529-531
Thanksgiving Day, 72
victory of Christian over Mohammedan, 7-9
See also names of denominations
Renaissance, 12, 18
Representation, difference in meaning of, 170, 171
Republican party (first), 238, 244, 259, 323
Republican party (present), 323, 344
Restoration, 92
Revere, Paul, 179
Revolutionary War, 179-212
army in, 177, 180-182, 190-198, 204-210
French aid in, 195, 209, 210
how money was raised for, 191
in New England, 179-186
in the Middle States, 190-198
in the Sou h, 206-210
in the West, 200-206
navy in, 185, 186, 199, 200
reasons for, 161-180, 186
Rhode Island, 87, 188, 237, 304
Rhodes, J. F., 415
Richmond, Va., capital of Confederacy, 372
in Civil War, 381, 385, 389, 394, 404, 405
Rio Grande, 329, 381
Rip Van Winkle, 299
Robertson, James, 201, 282
Robinson Crusoe, 337, 342
Robinson, John, 65, 66
Rocky Mountains, 332, 333
Rolfe, John, 55, 56
Romans, 3, 5, 355
Roosevelt, Theodore, begins Panama Canal, 486
Big Stick policy of, 490
characteristics of, 475
Civil Service Commissioner, 428, 474
Dutch descent, 114
fights for conservation, 479-482
frontier training of, 474
in war with Spain, 438
policy concerning big business, 477, 478
President, 440, 474-482, 486, 490
upholds Monroe Doctrine, 490
welfare worker, 476
Roosevelt Dam, 481
Root, Elihu, 518
Rosecrans, W. S., 388, 402, 403
Round Table, 378
Rubber, 357, 483
Russia, in Alaska, 276, 278
in World War, 501, 502, 508, 509
sells Alaska to United States, 409

Sabbath, New England, 93, 94
Sacramento, 352, 447
St. Augustine, Fla., 27
St. Clair, General, 233
St. Joseph, Mo., 446
St. Leger, Colonel, 192, 193
St. Mihiel, 506, 511
St. Thomas, 491
Sakakawea, 250-252
showing Lewis and Clark the land beyond the Rocky Mountains, illustration facing 252
Salem, Mass., 84, 87
Salvation Army, 504
Sampson, William T., 437
San Francisco, 30, 395
San Juan Hill, 438
San Juan Islands, 418
Santa Anna, 327
Santa Fe, 27, 331, 351
Santa Fe Trail, 351, 352
Santiago, 437, 438
Santo Domingo, 490
Saratoga, battle of, 194, 198
Savannah, 105, 206, 381
Savannah (steamship), 288
Schenectady massacre, 131
Schley, W. S., 437
Schoolhouse and watch house (1648), 89
Schools, *see* Education
Schuyler, Philip, 194
Scott, Walter, 298, 350
Scott, Winfield, 330, 379
Seaplane, 523
Seattle, 410
Secession, 370, 372, 408
Sedan, 512, 515
Seminole Indians, 274
Senators of U. S., election of (seventeenth amendment), 521
Separatists, 64, 78
Serbia, 500, 501
Servants, 58-61, *see* Indentured servants
Sevier, John, 201, 208
Seward, William H., 341, 375
Sewing machine, 356, 392
Shakespeare, William, 49, 157, 337
Sharpsburg, 385

Shays Rebellion, 217
Shenandoah valley, 405
Sheridan, Philip H., 377, 403, 404, 405
Sheridan's Ride, 405
Sherman, John, 429
Sherman, William T., 330, 337, 403, 404
Sherman Act, 471, 477, 498
Shiloh, 388
Shipbuilding, 142, 163, 357
Sickness, 362, 363, 527
Silver, demonetization of, 429
  struggle for free coinage of, 429-431
Slater, Samuel, 304-306
Slavery, agitation against (1849-1861), 335-348
  balance of states, 279
  Compromise of 1850, 338, 339
  constitutional amendments affecting, 412
  cotton gin and, 278, 293, 304
  Emancipation Proclamation against, 398
  in the Constitution, 222
  in Greece, 335
  in Rome, 5, 8
  in the North, 121, 148, 335
  in Virginia colony, 60, 61
  influence on presidential nominations (1849-1861), 337, 338
  Jefferson's indictment of, 335
  Lee's opinion of, 378
  Lincoln on, 337
  Missouri Compromise, 279, 280
  prohibited in Northwest Territory, 219, 278
  secession because of, 370, 371, 374
  stopped by Civil War, 408
  See also Negroes
Slave states, 370, 372, 374, 380
Sloat, Commodore, 330
Smith, Capt. John, 53-55, 65
Social aims, broadening of, 366, 368
  concerning slavery, 336, 340
  for relieving pain, 361, 362, 364-366, 395, 504, 527
  in early New York and Philadelphia, 294, 295
  in United States Sanitary Commission, 395
  of Dorothea Dix, 364, 365
  of Florence Nightingale, 364, 365, 366
  of Red Cross, 366, 396, 504
  of twentieth century, 475-477, 525-533
  regarding imprisonment for debt, 294, 295
  See also Americanism, Ideals, Religion
Social legislation, 475-477, 530, 531
  compulsory education, 531
  for children's protection, 530, 531
  limiting hours, 531
  living wage, 531
  mothers' pensions, 531
  workmen's compensation, 531
Social workers, 529, 530
Soto, Hernando de, 25, 26
South, Civil War with, 370-408
  farming in, 233, 294
  higher education in, 364
  in Reconstruction days, 410-415
  progress in manufactures, 465
  slavery agitation affecting, 278-280, 335-347
  the new, 465
  See also Negroes, Slavery
South America, colonization of, 25
  discovery of, 22
  gains independence, 275, 277, 278
  republics in, 483
South Carolina, 280, 317, 370, 371
South Dakota, 453
South Pass, 333
Spain, 19-22, 26, 28-30, 138, 210, 236, 247, 248
  at war with United States, 435-439
  closes Mississippi River, 236
  loses American colonies, 275, 440, 441, 483
  sells Florida, 274, 275
Spanish colonies, 21, 22, 24, 25, 27, 28, 30, 210, 248, 275-277, 440, 441, 483
Spectator, 157
Spice Islands, 16, 22
Spoils system, 315
Spot Resolution, 329
Spurgeon, C. H., 398
Squanto, 68, 69, 70
Stamp Act, 168, 170
Standish, Miles, 66, 67, 68, 71, 72
Standpatters, 494, 495
Stanton, Edwin M., 375, 406, 416
Stark, John, 194
Star-Spangled Banner, 264
States, formed from the thirteen colonies, 188
  table of, xxv
Steamboat, 288, 289
Steam engine, 302, 303, 305
Steel, 460-462
Stephens, Alexander, 370, 413
Stephenson, George, 348
Steuben, Baron, 195
Stevenson, Robert Louis, 442
Stocks in early New England, 93
Stone River, 387
Stowe, Harriet Beecher, 340
Strikes, 469, 470 (Pittsburgh); 477 (coal)
Stuart kings, 78, 79
Stuyvesant, Peter, 111, 112
Submarines, 502, 503, 507, 518, 521
Sub-treasuries, 321
Suffrage, 314, 521
Sullivan, Ft., 206
Sullivan, John, 198
Sumter, Ft., 370-372, 381
Sumter, Thomas, 207
Supreme Court of U. S., 224, 229, 241, 242
Surgery, 361, 362
Swedish colony, 108, 165
Swift, Jonathan, 158

Tacoma, 410
Taft, William H., chief justice of Supreme Court, 493
  in Cuba, 440
  in Philippines, 493
  President, 493-495
Tank, 507, 522
Tariff, 231
  after Civil War, 425, 431, 432
  after War of 1812, 271, 274
  after 1900, 494, 497
  Nullification Ordinance of South Carolina against, 317
  objection of South to, 280
  "tariff of Abominations," 274
Tariff Commission, 494
Taxation, as cause of separation from Great Britain, 167, 168, 172-175
  Hamilton's genius in providing for, 231-233
  of incomes, 393, 521
  without representation, 79, 82, 162, 167-174
  See also Tariff
Taylor, Zachary, 329, 330, 337, 344
Tecumseh, 261, 263
Telegraph, invention of, 355
Telephone, 466, 467
Ten Commandments, 1, 76, 364
Tennessee, 238, 372, 373, 411, 412, 514
Tennyson, Alfred, 378, 506

Teutonic races, our debt to, 5, 6
Texas, admitted to Union, 329
  annexation opposed, 327, 333
  relation to Mexico, 326, 327, 331
  republic of, 326
  secession, 370, 416
  yields claim to lands, 339
Thames, battle of, 263
Thanksgiving, 72
Thomas, George H., 377, 403, 405
Thoreau, Henry D., 367
Thrift, 528
Ticonderoga, 183, 186, 193
Tilden, S. J., 421
Tippecanoe, battle of, 261
Tithingman, waking sleeper, 94
Toleration Act, 100
Tours, battle of, 7
Town Meeting, 91
Townshend Acts, 171, 172
Trade, early eastern, 17, 18
Trade restrictions, 162-164
Trade routes, early, 16-18
  triangular, 142
Travel, colonial, 152-153
  methods of, 301, 302, 350, 351
  routes of, 285-291
Trent affair, 397
Trenton, battle of, 191
Triangular trade, 142
Trunks, 227
Trusts, 471, 477, 478
Turks, 12, 18
Tutuila, 442
Twain, Mark (Samuel L. Clemens), 445-448
Tweed, W. M., 419
Tweed Ring, 419, 421
Tyler, John, 324, 325

Uncle Tom's Cabin, 341
Underground Railroad, 341
Underwood, Oscar, 497, 518
Underwood Tariff, 497
Unemployment, 528
Union Pacific Railroad, 448, 450-452
United States, climate of, 36, 37
  Constitution of, 222, 225, xi
  Declaration of Independence, 186, 187, vii
  expansion of, 203-206, 249, 250, 275, 329, 331-333, 409, 439, 487, 491
  famous inventions of, 303, 353, 356, 357, 361, 362
  formed from thirteen colonies, 188
  ideals of government of, 177, 187
  industrial progress of, 301-309, 348-360, 459-467
  moral and spiritual progress of, 294-296, 361-368, 441, 443, 475-477, 504, 505, 517, 518, 525, 527-533
  See also Americanism, Colonies
United States Bank, 231, 319
United States Sanitary Commission, 395
Unknown Soldier, 532
Utah, 338, 445, 495

Valley Forge, 194, 195
Van Buren, Martin, belief in democracy, 321
  Dutch descent, 320
  education of, 320, 321
  favors national treasuries, 321
  Free Soil candidate, 337
  President, 320, 321, 324
Vassar College, 472
Venezuelan boundary, 432, 433, 490
Vera Cruz, 330
Vermont, 88, 238, 341
Verrazzano, John, 33
Vespucius, Americus, 22
Vice Presidents, xxvi
Vicksburg, 389, 401, 402
Vincennes, 201, 203-205
Virginia, charter for, 50, 51
  colony of, 49-63
  ideals of great Virginians, 62, 63
  made motion for independence, 187
  mother of presidents, 272, 496
  origin of name, 32
  secession, 372, 416
  sides with Boston (1774), 175
Virginia (ship), 383, 384
Virgin Islands, 491

Wage earners, 360, 459, 467-469, 525
Waltham, Mass., 306
War of 1812, 261-270, 308, 397
Washington, Fort, 190
Washington, George, ancestry of, 82
  character of, 198, 231, 340, 532
  education of, 133, 155
  England's opinion of, 199
  in French and Indian War, 133-135
  in Revolution, 183-186, 190-199, 207-211
  President, 228-238
  president Constitutional Convention, 220, 222
Washington (city), 246, 264, 372, 379
Washington (state), 333, 453
Washington Territory, 453
Watauga, 201, 208
Waterloo, battle, 270
Watt, James, 302, 303
Wayne, Anthony, 195, 233
Webster-Ashburton treaty, 325
Webster, Daniel, America's greatest orator, 316, 362
  decides Canadian boundary, 325
  influence in preserving the Union, 316, 317
  Reply to Hayne, 316
  Seventh of March speech, 338
Welfare aims, *see* entries under "Social"
Wells, Horace, 362
Welles, Gideon, 376
Wellington, General, 270
West, 445-458
  democratic spirit of, 314, 456, 474
  early settlements in, 201, 219, 253, 338
  expansion of, 205, 250, 326, 330-334
  first transcontinental railroad through, 450, 451
  frontier of (1860), 445
  George Rogers Clark and the Northwest, 204, 205
  George III forbids colonists to settle in, 166
  great movement toward the, 282-284
  growth of, 445-457
  Indian troubles in, 166, 167, 201, 202, 261, 263, 268, 454, 455
  in possession of France, 127, 248-250
  in the Revolution, 201-206
  Lewis and Clark's exploration in the, 250-253
  modes of travel to the, 285-288, 349-352, 445-453
  rapid settlement beyond Mississippi River, 451, 453
  search for gold in, 338, 352, 353
  See also Westward movement
Western Reserve, 286
West Indian trade, 142
West Point, 207, 214, 376, 377, 489
West Virginia, 378

Westward movement, after Civil War, 448, 449
after panic of 1837, 321
after Louisiana Purchase, 282, 283
after Ordinance of 1787, 219
after transcontinental railroad, 452, 453
ends existence of frontier, 452
how Homestead Act affected, 448, 449
in the South, 294
in 1830-1860, 360
of debtors, 295
to Connecticut, 85, 86
to Kentucky, 201, 205
to Oklahoma, 455, 456
Whig party, 323, 325, 327, 337, 344
Whisky Rebellion, 233, 234
Whisky Ring, 420
Whitney, Eli, 296, 303, 304
Whittier, John Greenleaf, 336, 367
Widow's letter (1744), 159
Wilderness, battle of, 404
William and Mary College, 145, 155
William Henry, Ft., 136
William the Conqueror, 9, 125
Williams, Roger, 87
Wilmot, Proviso, 330
Wilson, Woodrow, education of, 496
Federal Reserve Act, 498
League of Nations, 517
President, 496-499, 502, 503, 510, 517
war message to Congress, 503
Winslow, Edward, 69, 70, 71, 72
Winthrop, John, 80, 81
Wireless telegraphy, 522
Wisconsin, 329, 340
Witchcraft persecution, 84
Wolfe, General James, 137, 138
Woman suffrage, 521
Women, colonial, 144-147
difference in treatment of, 7, 8, 156
education of, 156, 157, 298, 363, 472
given right to vote, 521
Women—*Continued*
influence of, 7, 56, 75, 307, 364-366
work of, 144-147, 213, 214, 306, 391, 392, 505
Wood, Leonard, 438, 440
Wordsworth, William, 234
Workmen's Compensation, 531
World War, 500-517
airplanes in, 506
Allies in, 502, 509, 511
armistice ending, 516
army in, 503, 504, 509-516
battles of the Marne, 508, 510
Central Powers in, 501
conscription in, 503
cost of, 516, 517
financing the, 506
lack of preparedness for, 504
losses in, 516
Meuse-Argonne Offensive, 511-516
navy in, 507, 511
poison gas in, 507
submarines in, 502, 503, 507
terms of peace, 517
United States enters, 503
welfare agencies in, 504, 505
women in, 505
Wright, Orville and Wilbur, 523
Writs of Assistance, 167
Wyoming, massacre of, 198
Wyoming (state), 333, 452, 454

Yale College, 285, 296, 300, 303, 355, 472, 49
Yellow fever, 440, 487, 488
Yoke for carrying pails, 369
York, Alvin C., 514
York, Pa., 399
York (Toronto), 264
Yorktown, battle of, 209, 210
Young Men's Christian Association, 504

Zuñi Indians, 26

Miss Hulda Dettmer

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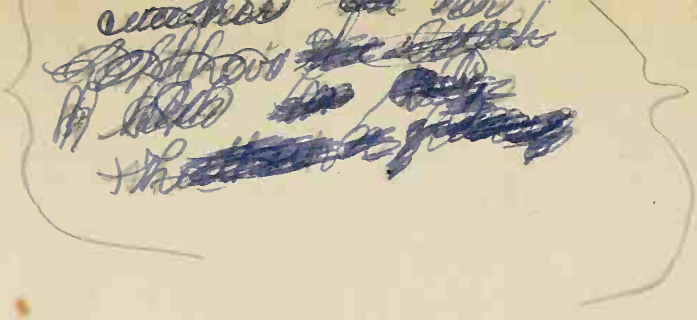
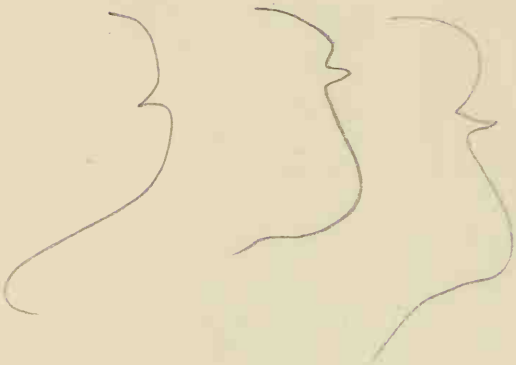
Ruby Warnke
Waverly
Iowa





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Ruby Franke
Waverly Iowa
Route 2.

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by the turks
france certier

conservation
relative fear

John Haughe
Sumner Iowa

Age 13 Rima
School